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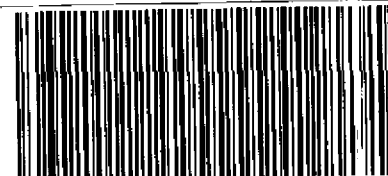


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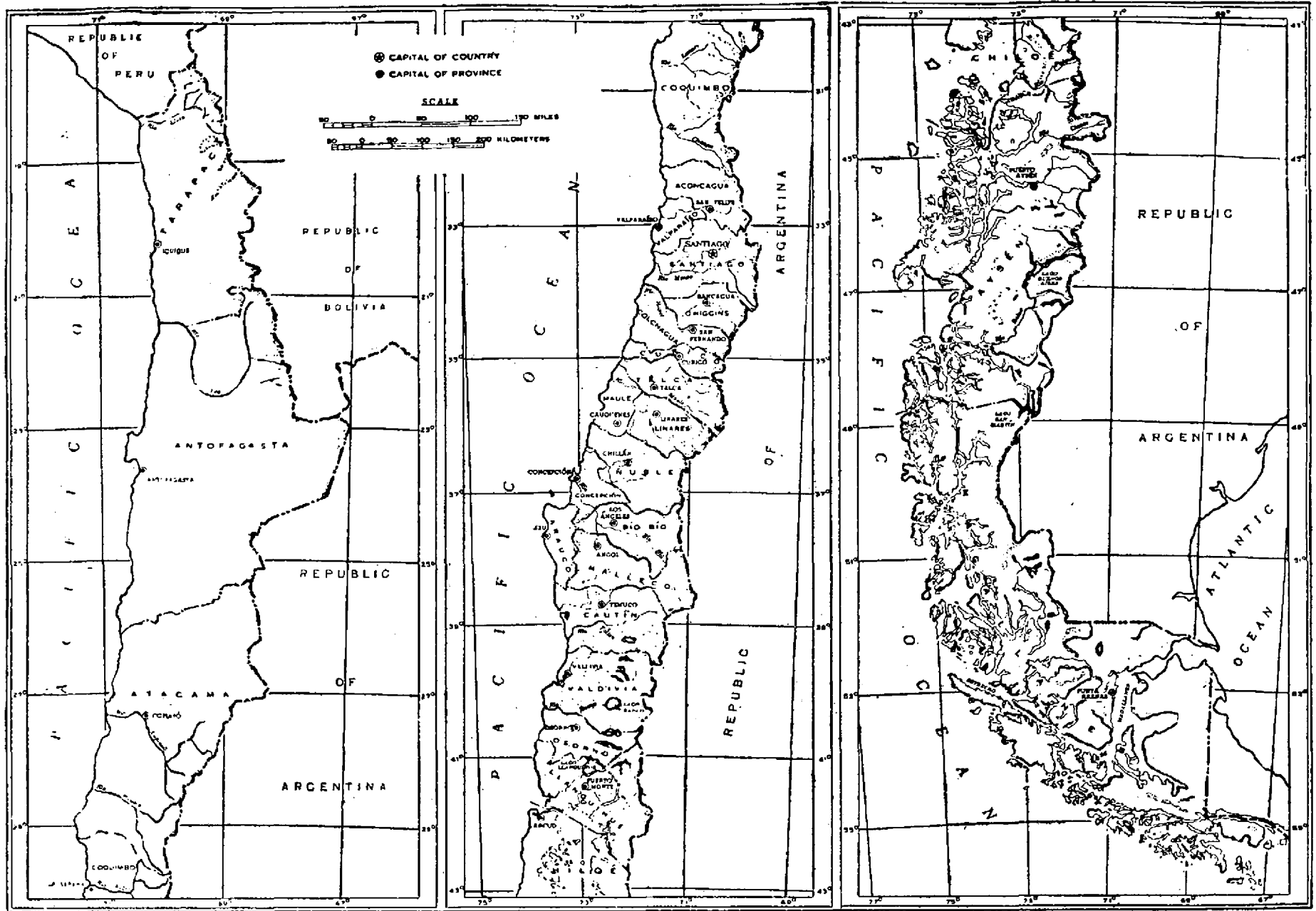
ORIGINAL: SPANISH

IMMIGRATION IN CHILE



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INTRODUCTION

Chile is one of the countries of Latin America which presents most unusual and pronounced features. Its geography, its people and its history all combine to bestow upon it an altogether distinctive personality.

1. This singularity is most remarkable where the territory itself is concerned. Chile extends from the Western watershed of the Andes to the Pacific coast, and from a Southern latitude of 18 degrees to one of 56 degrees; lengthwise it consists of 4,200 kilometres of high tablelands, mountains, valleys and islands, and varies in width from 75 to 400 kilometres, 200 being the average figure. The country, with an area amounting to 741,767 square kilometres, is accordingly larger than any European nation except the Soviet union. However, its length and extreme narrowness, together with the fact that it is embedded in its entirety in the slopes of the Andes, prevent it from possessing the importance which ought by rights to belong to it in view of its size; instead they are merely the cause of special limitations and problems.

The Northern third of Chile, from the plains of Arica to the Valley of the Aconcagua, falls within the belt of deserts and steppes which encircle almost the entire globe immediately to the South of the tropical zone. This part of Chile is composed of rocky and dusty plateaux which, as far as the extreme South, and in the spurs of the Andean foothills, furrowed by narrow valleys and torrential water-courses. Rainfall is almost non-existent. The climate is warm, but the nights are often cold, with frequent damp mists, caused by the Humbolt Current which flows along the entire coastline and imparts freshness to the Chilean climate.

Although in its Southern section this region does possess fertile strips of alluvial soil, the lack of water, and the tremendous scale on which irrigation would be necessary, make agriculture of little value in these parts. Indeed it hardly exists at all, except for very small orchards and vineyards, precarious pasture for horses and fields of fodder, strung like beads along the river beds and streams from the

/Aconcagua to

Aconcagua to Copiapó. It is however in this part that saltpetre deposits lie buried (the Pampa of Tamarugal, a steppe so named on account of the shrub that covered it); so do the most important veins of copper and iron ore in the country, and until a short time ago, these districts were fairly rich in silver and gold, the latter metal being mined there to this day.

In view of these geographic and economic conditions, the scanty population of that region (apart from the widely-spaced agricultural centers and their local markets) is concentrated along the coast, its commercial boundary, and also, in a fluctuating and adventitious manner, in the saltpetre mines.

The central third of Chile, from the Aconcagua River to the Bay of Reloncaví, is the cradle of the nation and the most vital region of the country. It is hemmed in by the mountain ranges on both East and West; the Andes and the coastal Cordillera. Between them lie a great number of plains and meadows which compose the so-called Central Valley. This region is exceedingly fertile, but the two lines of mountains throw out a number of foothills which break up the continuity and curtail the area of high-quality arable land.

This part of Chile experiences the full range of climate peculiar to temperate zones, from the hot sun of the Northern vine-growing country to the rain of the Southern woodlands. In addition this region possesses deposits of copper and lignite, and a little gold. Agriculture, cattle-raising on a large scale, cereal-growing, forestry, and the manufacturing and electrical industries of the country, are all concentrated within it. It is therefore the most densely populated and active part of the country and the one in which almost all the cities of importance have arisen.

The Southern third of Chile stretches from the Bay of Reloncaví to Cape Horn. In this region the central valley and the coastal Cordillera disappear into the depths of the ocean, and as a result it consists of the Western foothills of the Andes, deeply indented by creeks and flooded

/valleys and

valleys and by an intricate group of archipelagoes, where a labyrinth of channels winds in and out of the numerous islands, some of which are exceedingly small. Two of these islands, Chiloé and Tierra del Fuego (the western half of which is Chilean) stand at either end of this Pelagian section of the country.

The climate is stormy and rainfall very heavy, gradually decreasing, however, towards the polar regions. The dry land, which consists of hills and tablelands cut up by numerous valleys; is covered with thick forests and woods; these become sparser towards the South and eventually end in tundras. Glaciers begin to form in the very heart of the forest zone, sliding from the mountain peaks only to crash into the sea. Almost all the islands, with the exception of Chiloé and Tierra del Fuego, are incapable of development for either tillage or pasture.

Again, with the exception of Chiloé and of the city of Punta Arenas (on the continental side of the Straits of Magellan) from whose harbour both wool and meat are shipped, and also of the administrative centres, this region is virtually unpopulated and is even in part an unexplored land. Chiloé, which has been colonised from earliest times, comprises all the agricultural activity of this part of Chile, which consists chiefly of potato-growing and forestry. Sheep-raising on an important scale has been initiated in Aysén and Magallanes, where the rich pasture characteristic of regions fairly near the Antarctic has been turned to good account; wool is the principal objective. Deposits of petroleum have recently been discovered in Tierra del Fuego, and have not yet been fully exploited.

2. The basic stock of the Chilean people has been formed by intermarriage between the Spanish colonists and the native Indians. Negroes brought from Peru, especially during the 17th century and the first half of the 18th, added their blood to the mixture of the two races. The highest census figures showing the number of Spaniards who have come to Chile since its discovery up to the date of its political emancipation do not exceed 46,000. Approximately 9,000 Spaniards born in the mother country were living in Chile between 1810 and 1812. 15,000 Creoles

/(children of Spanish

(children of Spanish parents, born in America and of pure white stock), 6,000 negroes, 10,000 zambos and mulattoes (negro-Indian and negro-whites respectively), 103,000 indians, and 400,000 Spanish-Indians, or a blend of all three races, each in its purity. These individuals of mixed descent accounted for about 60 per cent of the total population. Of recent years the negroes, mulattoes and zambos have disappeared, their children having, by a process of intermarriage, become absorbed in the population as a whole. Immigrants since the proclamation of national independence, have nearly all come from Europe and the Mediterranean slopes of Asia Minor, and have strengthened the contribution of the people of so-called Caucasian races, thus increasing the groups of pure white stock, ^{1/} particularly in the cities and in the upper and middle classes.

Remnants of the native races still survive today. There are still some Chancos, and Quichuas in the North albeit scattered among the rural population and assimilated by them. In the ancient Araucanian country there may be found the last of the Mapuches, who form considerable groups of peasants and stock farmers; although they are becoming incorporated to an ever increasing extent in the population and in the culture of the country, they still preserve living traces of the tribal system and traditions. In the islands and mainland of the most southerly part there are still a few forest tribes of Alacalufes, Tehuelches and other Indian races, chiefly engaged in fishing.

The Chilean population presents certain outstanding ethnohistorical features. It is deeply rooted in a high cultural tradition which reveals itself rather in a fundamental attitude to life than in its more formal aspects of instruction and information. The Chilean people have learned patience, constancy and the value of definite legal standards. They possess a vivid awareness of the brotherhood of man and are readily moved

1/ Elementos Etnicos que han contribuido a la formación de Chile.

("Ethnological Elements that have contributed to the formation of the Chilean Nation") by Luis Thayer Ojeda, Santiago, 1919.

to compassion for their neighbours. They are exceedingly sensitive to the appeal of patriotism and national pride, but on the other hand do not harbour any racial or religious prejudices, welcoming the foreigner as an equal wherever he may be from. They show strength and endurance both in work and in hardship. Their intelligence is lively, and they are quick to learn and to use the most complex and intricate technical skills. They are animated by a robust faith in the material and moral progress which they seek, and feel a sincere respect for all human values. They are, in short, a vigorous and fundamentally liberal people, and possess a depth of character rooted in the customs and feelings which underlie all the outward trappings of political and social institutions.

3. Chile has succeeded, practically from the beginning of its history as an independent state, in embodying a corporate life into its people in legal forms of a democratic nature, the almost uninterrupted continuity of which stands alone in the whole of Latin America. The evolution of these legal forms has resulted in recent years in the formation of very up-to-date schemes for workmen's rights and social security, applicable to wage earners in industry, trade and the public services. The efficiency in actual practice of this legislation and its results afford interesting material for research.

Up to the middle of the 19th century Chile was almost exclusively an agricultural nation. Rudimentary industries and an equally rudimentary artisan class provided part of the clothing and equipment of the population, and processed, in a superficial manner, certain raw materials derived from agriculture and dairy farming. Mining was limited to the making of "gold washings" and to work of a primitive and desultory character in the mining of silver and copper. Foreign trade consisted in the export of these metals, of certain types of partly processed articles such as leather and flour, and of various agricultural products such as wheat, and livestock products such as dried meat; and in the importation of special foodstuffs, such as sugar and Paraguay tea (yerba maté) and of manufactured consumer goods, chiefly textiles and luxury goods.

Towards 1850 the exploitation of lignite began in Chile, closely followed by copper mining, already on an important scale, and by the feverish exploitation of silver ore. In 1866 a vast layer of saltpetre at Antofagasta was discovered; actually it had been known of before, and superficially exploited where it extends through the province of Tarapacá. Its exploitations on a grand scale and its subsequent success won for Chile the world monopoly of saltpetre, until the industrial production of synthetic saltpetre. ^{1/}

The economic structure of Chile thus acquired the pattern that characterises it today. Although fundamentally agricultural, with a population depending on farming, it is, however, chiefly important for its mining industry where foreign trade is concerned, and for the obtaining of resources with which to pay for essential imports. It chiefly exports raw materials and imports manufactured goods.

At the beginning of the first World War, which produced simultaneously a scarcity of essential supplies from foreign sources and a relatively greater abundance of imports, a slow process of industrialisation began in Chile; it was chiefly noticeable in the setting up of light industries for internal consumption. This process has been accelerated by the consequences of the great economic depression of the thirties and of the second World War, and has received a greater impetus of recent years; its furtherance has been the special concern of government policy. Since 1939 in particular, the State has devoted considerable resources towards the speeding up of the industrialisation of the country, passing detailed legislation measures and establishing necessary institutions. Thanks to these efforts, it is hoped that greater stability may be given to the national economy, thus lessening

1/ In 1899, Chilean exports were classified as follows:

Mining products	\$137,647,605
Agricultural products	16,011,864
Manufactured articles	3,862,117
Other exports	5,584,547

Economic History of Chile by Daniel Martins, Santiago.

(Historia Económica de Chile.)

its present complete dependence on world markets, and that the standard of living may be raised among the bulk of the population by means of greater production and fuller employment of a secure and remunerative nature.

4. This is precisely where the problem of immigration comes in: that is to say, whether immigration - and if so of what type and to what extent - can be of assistance in the balanced development of Chile's economic system, and in the achievement of wellbeing for its people. It is on this question that the present work aims to throw light, though only as a preliminary survey.

For this purpose the questions which inevitably present themselves, and which it is necessary to try to answer by means of research and analysis are as follows:-

- a) Does Chile need immigration in order to progress rapidly and satisfactorily?
- b) If so, should it be mass immigration, or only a selected and limited variety?
- c) If the latter, which would be the best way to proceed with regard to authorization, special selection and suitable quantity; and in which branch of economic activity would it be most valuable?
- d) What conditions for the reception of immigrants does Chile actually offer? That is to say, as regards the assimilation of immigrants in productive work, standard of living, material and moral acclimatization, economic and social incentives, etc.?
- e) Having thus defined the degree to which immigration is feasible and desirable, what would be its possible cost? What practical channels exist for its realization in actual fact, and what technical, financial, legislative and administrative measures would be advisable in order to clear such channels and make them possible to use?

/In order

In order to investigate these problems, the questionnaire which figures as Appendix I to the present work was circulated in relevant Government circles. There were, of course, difficulties in the way of obtaining adequate replies to this type of appeal for information, in particular the definite time limit imposed by the schedule of the Economic Commission for Latin America; so direct investigation was resorted to, in order to atone for the possible lack of pertinent answers to the questionnaire. These fell into three groups:

- a) The summarising and consolidation of official documents.
- b) Interviews with public officials in appropriate government departments, and with representatives of private associations interested in the subject;
- c) Correspondence (1,034 letters were sent and answers received), and interviews (110 in number) with managers and executives in a selection of organizations fully representing the industrial activity of the 17 most important cities of the country. ^{1/}

The results of this study of the problem are discussed in the following pages.

Inasmuch as the resources of the nation and its economic and social situation are contributory factors in determining whether or not Chile needs immigration, and if so of what type and to what extent, and as it is necessary to define the capacity of the country in this respect, the present study begins with a brief sketch of the economy, demography and standard of living in Chile, based on the most recent statistics available from official sources.

Next it is interesting briefly to examine the history of immigration in Chile, with the idea of extracting therefrom the lessons of the past with regard to the contributions made by past immigrations

^{1/} Santiago, Valparaíso, Quilpué, Quillota, Viña del Mar, San Felipe, Talca, Constitución, Chillán, Concepción, Talcahuano, Tomé, La Unión, Temuco, Valdivia, Osorno, and Puerto Montt.

to the economic and general development of the country, together with the results of projects now in the course of execution.

Thus the legislative situation and the policy of the present Government regarding immigration are described and are related to the expedients that would appear to emerge from the present rough analysis of the subject.

Next, the possibility and desirability of a general and relatively large immigration is first considered, and secondly, the usefulness of a selective and moderate one, together with its feasibility and the methods likely to be required to carry it through to a successful conclusion.

Lastly, this investigation into the problem of immigration in Chile is summarised in a number of conclusions.

In the course of the following exposition it is inevitable that attention should be called to facts and situations susceptible of much improvement, along with others that show promising progress; no doubt they will be rectified in the course of time. The writer refers to a particular state of affairs inherent at a certain stage of all historical evolution, so that even the most advanced peoples of the world have passed through it; a state of affairs of which, moreover, Chilean statesmen and technicians are fully aware, and which both are doing their utmost to remedy. The persistent march of industrialisation which is making such steady progress in the whole country is an example of this. The present work has been completed precisely in order to assist in the organization of rehabilitation and progress. It is hoped that it may help to clear the way towards an organized knowledge of the process of immigration and its usefulness in the country's development, and towards the taking of peaceable and efficient action in that direction.

ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL CONDITIONS

A.- ECONOMIC POSITION

L. AGRICULTURE

Natural Resources:

The most recent statistics from official sources classify the value of agriculture in Chile according to the plan in Table 1. This table shows that only about 40 per cent of the territory is suitable for development of agriculture, dairy farming or afforestation. The large proportion of sterile soil is due to the existence of the deserts of Tarapacá, Antofagasta and Atacama; the steppes of Coquimbo and Aconcagua, the small hills and slopes of both Cordilleras, and the wasteland and perpetual snows of Aysen and Magallanes. The arable land of Chile accounts for only 8 per cent of the total area of the country, a percentage which works out at only about 1.02 hectares per inhabitant.

Table 2 shows the approximate distribution of the natural agricultural resources of Chile among the three geographical zones of the country.

In this distribution the arid character of the deserts and steppes of the Northern zone may be clearly seen. The Central Zone, which represents only a quarter of the territory of the country, comprises three-quarters of the soil that can be cultivated and 94 per cent of the arable land. The Southern zone is chiefly notable for its pasture and its forests, and includes, within the third part of Chile which it represents, 56.3 per cent of the forests and 62.6 per cent of the natural meadows of the country.

It is nonetheless necessary to point out that the inventory of the natural agricultural resources of Chile is only an approximate one. In fact there is no complete report of the agricultural value of Chilean lands in existence. The Ministry of Agriculture has indeed completed reports of this nature, but to date it has only succeeded in inspecting about one-sixth of the soils which are considered arable. ^{1/}

^{1/} Interview with Sr. Reinaldo Wilhelm G. of the Ministry of Agriculture.

It is very possible that a thorough survey of the soil might reveal greater natural agricultural resources than have been listed up to now, in the same way that by means of systems of irrigation and of dessication to facilitate the exploitation of certain forested zones and the re-afforestation of others, together with the perfecting of methods of farming, a better use could be made of these resources. It is however improbable that such measures would cause any substantial alterations in the table showing the natural agricultural capacity of the country. The agricultural future of the Northern zone is exceedingly limited; the Central zone has a much more promising one, so much so that its full development could scarcely satisfy the necessities of a population which is showing a healthy increase and whose position as regards foodstuffs makes considerable improvements essential. For instance, that part of the Central zone which includes Ñuble, Concepción, Arauco, Bío-Bío and Malleco, has recently been surveyed; this district will naturally be called upon to supply foodstuffs for the increase in population which the development of steel foundries - the raw materials for which exist in the province of Concepción - is bound to attract.^{1/} This region is typical of the Central zone as a whole, as may be seen from Table 3. The report quoted suggests that a considerable development in agriculture and livestock production may be possible in the near future, thanks to the better use of natural resources, in particular to works of irrigation and afforestation of eroded or poor soil. To put it more simply, the possibility does exist of making good use of about 260,000 hectares of land at present sterile, in order to turn most of them into pasture; yet this would only increase the area of fertile land by 5 per cent, without any appreciable increase in actual arable land.

There remains the vast, almost unknown and sparsely populated Southern zone. It has been the object of great hopes, some of which no

^{1/} Agriculture in the region of Concepcion and "La Frontera", op. cit.

doubt can be fulfilled. There are two factors, however, insofar as can be predicted, that make it impossible to consider this zone as a kind of frontier territory capable of supporting a dense agrarian population:

a) the fertile soil there is shallow and acid and the contours of the region broken up; b) in the greater part of this territory the climate is beyond measure rainy and stormy. As a result, cultivated land becomes easily eroded, so that both the intensive and the extensive cultivation of cereals appears possible only in tracts of land that are steadily contracting, and whose small area and lack of continuity afford no scope for agricultural development on a large scale. To these permanent conditions may be added the fact that lands conceivably arable by nature are mostly covered with thick and tangled woods, innocent of roads, and with only rare, minute and scattered villages; thus the initial clearance, the breaking up of the soil and the cultivation of these lands, together with the establishment of agricultural communities therein, would necessitate profound research, preliminary schemes, very considerable effort, and abundant financial resources, none of which could be secured without vigorous and persevering action on the part of the state. Forestry and stock-breeding do appear to be susceptible of considerable development in this zone, but neither activity can retain and support a very dense population.

The seas and coasts of Chile abound in fish and shell fish of high nutritious value, but no researches have as yet been made fully of the fishery resources of the nation.

b) System of land tenure:

The system of large farms is traditional in Chile and comes from the legal establishment of estates granted by the Kings of Spain. They appear throughout the country, especially in the south and in the mineral districts of the Central zone, which, as has already been stated, are the most fertile and thickly populated. Such land as is left unoccupied by large estates is divided up into small holdings, particularly in the North where the climate and soil make peasant cultivation possible, and also in the vicinity of the towns of the South, where tiny farms, surrounded by the original forest, have been appearing in greater numbers with the spread

/of colonization.

of colonization. Property of a medium size has been limited to such an extent by the larger estates, that it has scarcely developed at all.

Although the concentration into relatively few hands of landed property in Chile is an obvious and indisputable historical fact, the exact calculation of its size is difficult on account of lack of statistics. However, Table 4 permits a rough idea of the importance of the present system, in its three aspects of the extreme concentration of landed property, the excessive sub-division of small holdings, and the insufficient development of medium sized property. While in 1936 less than 1 per cent of country properties comprised 68 per cent of the total amount of land suitable for agriculture, pasture or timber production, 72 per cent of these properties did not include as much as 2 1/2 per cent of useful soil; only a quarter of the tracts of arable ground were of moderate size, and the whole lot together barely accounted for 16 per cent of the fertile land of the country. If the provinces and territory of the South which contains large cattle rearing organizations owning vast estates were to be omitted from this survey, then the last item of Table 4 would read as follows:

Scale of areas under consideration	Mean area	Number of farms	Percentages of the number		Total area	Percentages of the area	
			Whole country	Minus southern zone		Coun-try	Minus southern zone
2,001 & over	4,025	1,242	0.69	-	5,000,000	20	37

This shows that 0.69 per cent of the arable lands outside the Southern zone comprises 20 per cent of the fertile land of the country and 37 per cent of the really good land (still excluding that of the South). The concentration of landed property apparent from these figures is actually even greater, for there are a great number of tenant farmers on various estates.

The evaluation of these lands suffers from the lack of exact

/statistics, as

statistics, as does any attempted calculation of their area. As has already been said, there is no scientifically accurate census of the landed wealth of Chile. Official evaluations, on which land taxes are based, rest chiefly on the statements of landed proprietors and fall notoriously below the real value of the property. Moreover, with the exception of the vicinity of large towns and of summer resorts where the rural population is in a state of transition towards an urban type of life, the market for landed property is very sluggish and prices are affected by non-commercial factors. It is therefore only possible to make estimates: one of the most recent and authoritative came to the conclusion that only 6.8 per cent of rural estates comprised 81 per cent of the value of the arable land, a proportion which proves the extreme concentration of country property in a few hands.

A tendency towards a more even distribution of landed property has been known to exist for many years. Down to the present day the system of large estates has definitely implied the prerogative of one class of society, and has in fact been the chief badge of its power, omitting economic causes. Progress in the general economy of the country is gradually percolating into the whole system, and there are tendencies, thanks to its stimulus, towards a more even distribution of landed property. But such tendencies cannot be said to have had much effect on the general picture described above, for such changes as are taking place are exceedingly slow and will need many years, unless unforeseen circumstances should intervene, to make any appreciable alterations necessary in the present pattern of land tenure in Chile.

c) Use of Land; Production:

Although Chile is still a predominantly agricultural country, the possible and, indeed, essential development of its agriculture is gravely handicapped by climatic and soil conditions, by the system of land tenure, and by the lack of modern methods of cultivation. The way in which soil suitable for cultivation, etc., is used at present, is shown in Table 5.

This table reveals the existence of a standard in the utilization of agricultural land that shows very little variation, for the appreciable differences that do appear between the two dates under comparison are less

/the result

the result of real changes than of adjustments for statistical purposes.

The above-mentioned standard is, of course, subject to traditional standards imposed in their turn by the causes already described, that is, by the system of land tenure and by the lack of modern methods of cultivation. A study of the table under discussion will show that more than half of the arable lands, which in any case are not very numerous, lie fallow every year, so that 46 per cent of them are used as pasture which, because of the prevailing climate, can only yield negligible advantages and seasonable ones at that. The area devoted to farming, horticulture and agriculture (i.e. 5 per cent of the arable land) shows clearly how little importance is attached to intensive farming. Where woodlands are concerned, the preceding table reveals the existence of 600,000 hectares of deforested land,^{1/} and a high percentage (55 per cent) of land covered with scrub, which might perhaps be suitable to a considerable extent for afforestation without prejudicing its use as pasture. There are in addition four million hectares of native woodland which are valuable but unexploited, amounting to 90 per cent of the the country's natural timber resources. Afforestation was carried out in 250,000 hectares, that is, 1.3 per cent of the total area of woodland and 2.6 per cent of the wild, uncultivated districts devoid of trees.

Tables 6 to 9 show the recent development and present state of agricultural, livestock and timber production, from which, in their analysis, the following fundamental facts may be deduced:

1) Speaking generally, it may be stated that neither the system of using agricultural land, nor the increase of ploughing, nor the production achieved, have shown any substantial changes in the past few years, even though the population and almost all other forms of economic activity throughout the country have shown progress. This statement does not, of course, take into account the inevitable fluctuations from one year to

^{1/} Of this area 440,000 hectares have been deforested by fire, for it is the current practice to burn woods in order to turn them into pasture or fields for cultivation, and 160,000 hectares by cutting down trees for timber or firewood without replacing them. (A Plan for Agriculture) "Plan Agrario" op. cit.

another, nor those occasioned by changes in matters of detail in the standard of cultivation, fluctuations caused moreover by definite facts such as the actual conditions in the markets and especially in foreign markets where certain goods are concerned. It is clear that agriculture is not keeping pace with the general trend of development in the economy of the country as a whole.

2) The lag in agricultural and livestock production has been particularly noticeable since 1940 in view of the increase in population. The incompleteness of the statistics available makes it impossible to know the exact ratio before this date of production to population working on the land: one can only take the two census years of 1930 and 1940 as standards of comparison, and these appear only to confirm the fact that production has declined in relation to the number of workers on the land.

3) The yield of the principal crops, particularly potatoes, has been decreasing gradually over a period of many years up to 1945. Since then, some of these crops have shown higher yields and even exceeded those of former years. At the time of writing the use of fertilizers has trebled itself; from this, however, a gradual impoverishment of the soil may be inferred which cancels out the advantages that might otherwise be derived from the greater use of chemical manures and of selected seeds.

4) It may be observed that the use of certain new crops, such as rice and sunflowers, has considerable importance, especially as they make use of ground otherwise valueless, and as the rotation of crops improves its quality. Fruit-growing also seems to be on the increase; and among secondary industries, the preparation of milk products has shown a notable development. Chilean agriculture has, generally speaking, reached a creditable stage of diversification which shows every tendency to increase in a highly beneficial manner.

The Chilean Government is making every effort to increase agriculture and livestock production by means of irrigation works, mechanization, the distribution of fertilizers, the giving of credit, colonization, and by the diffusion of technical and agrarian transport and storage facilities; these contributions will be studied in greater detail later. Yet,

/notwithstanding these

notwithstanding these efforts and the manifest progress resulting therefrom, Chilean agriculture is retarded by the obstacles listed above, which may be summarised as follows:

A. The system of large estates. Apart from its social consequences - which in their turn produce far-reaching economic effects, such as the inadequacy of available land, the lack of purchasing power among the bulk of the agrarian population, and the resultant lack of an adequate domestic market - difficulties of a purely agricultural nature are attributable to it. For instance, the use made of land is generally less efficient both in large estates and in small holdings than in properties of a reasonable size. This is a well-known fact, even though the absence of statistics makes it difficult to prove. Moreover, the system of large estates hinders economic and technical assistance; the former is like a drop in the ocean to one who does not require it, and the latter has no effect on account of the great number of agricultural labourers who can only afford to live from hand to mouth. Further, the system causes prices to rise out of all proportion to the actual value of the property, thus increasing the number of small holdings and hindering the development of landed properties of a medium size which must form the foundation of all agricultural progress and of a sound social structure.^{1/}

^{1/} The influence exerted by the system whereby land is concentrated in a few hands on the development of agriculture and on the economy of Chile may be studied from the following works and documents (to name only a few):

- 1) Report of the Coördinating Commission on Immigration to H.E. The President of the Republic, 1945. (Informe de la Comisión Coordinadora de la Inmigración a S.E. el Presidente de la República, 1945).
- 2) "A Plan for Agriculture", op. cit. (Plan Agrario, op. cit.)
- 3) Yearbook of the Directorate General of Information and Education, Santiago, 1946. (Anuario de la Dirección General de Informaciones y Cultura, 1946).
- 4) "Political Economy" and "Economic Policy", by Professor Daniel Martner, of the University of Chile, Santiago, 1934-1935. ("Economía Política" y "Política Económica" por el profesor Daniel Martner, de la Universidad de Chile, Santiago, 1934 y 1935).
- 5) "The Expansion and Structure of Chilean Agriculture" by Hugo Trivelli, Santiago, 1941. ("Expansión y estructura agrarias de Chile", por Hugo Trivelli, Santiago, 1941). (Continued)

/B. An insufficient

B. An insufficient use of modern methods of cultivation, together with defects in agrarian policy. Some more points may be added to those already noted. For instance, by 1943 roughly half the land under irrigation was being used as cattle-pasture and three-quarters of this (i.e. a third of the total amount of irrigated land) were used as uncultivated meadows, producing inevitably small returns; this system is still followed today, though perhaps to a lesser degree. Although about half of these meadows enjoy fortuitous irrigation, a considerable area is under continuous irrigation. Further, ignorant methods of cultivation have caused the erosion of large areas containing organic matter, particularly in the provinces of Maule, Bio-Bio, Malleco and Cautín and in the districts enclosed by the coastal cordillera. It is reckoned that in 1943 about 4,000,000 hectares suffered from erosion, representing a seventh of the total area of alluvial soil. Wine-growing, especially on large farms, is one of Chile's most outstanding activities, and the wines have gained a well-deserved reputation. Although the vineyards occupy less than 1 per cent of the cultivated land and pasture taken together, the value of their products amounts to 10 per cent of the agricultural and

1/ (Continued from previous page)

- 6) "The Problem of Agrarian Production and the National Agrarian Policy", by Professor Moisés Poblete Troncoso of the University of Chile, Santiago, 1943. (*El Problema de la producción agrícola y la política agraria nacional*, por el profesor Moisés Poblete Troncoso, de la Universidad de Chile, Santiago, 1943).
- 7) "Political Economy" and "Economic Policy" by Professor Santiago Macchiavello Varas of the University of Chile, Santiago, 1944. (*"Economía Política" y "Política Económica"* por el profesor Santiago Macchiavello Varas, de la Universidad de Chile, Santiago, 1944).
- 8) "The National Economic System and the Copper Mining Industry" by Ignacio Aliaga Ibar, Santiago 1946. (*"La Economía nacional y la industria del cobre"* por Ignacio Aliaga Ibar, Santiago, 1946).
- 9) "Structure of our Economic System", by Francisco Antonio Pinto, Santiago, 1947. (*"Estructura de nuestra economía"*, por Francisco Antonio Pinto, Santiago, 1947).

/livestock production

livestock production as a whole. Wine-growing is however on the decline: 359,463,478 litres were produced in 1938, but only 261,494,250 litres in 1947.^{1/} The reason lies in the limitations imposed upon production by certain regulations which have been interpreted in such a way as virtually to create a monopoly. Forestry and its associated industries are of greater importance and, taken as a whole, represent capital amounting to more than 1,500 million pesos; over 45,000 workmen are engaged in them, and the annual production exceeds the sum of 1,360 million pesos. Yet similar technical defects exist in forestry too. Good-class timber is used as shown in Table 10. Sixty per cent of it is used as firewood. Where stock-breeding is concerned, the cattle population shows a tendency to decrease, although the causes for this which were observed in 1943 have diminished.^{2/} The health of the cattle has however improved, and it is now forbidden to slaughter cows. The uncertainty of government policy regarding the importation of Argentine cattle has possibly had an effect on the situation. Horse-breeding is also on the decrease, although horses could be valuable in certain types of farm-work and transport if only the breeding of suitable animals were encouraged.

C. Lack of necessary equipment. It has already been stated that the use of chemical manures has trebled itself during the last decade; further, fertilizers containing nitrogen and potassium are available to the farmer in unlimited quantities, together with phosphates. But the prices are so high as to constitute a serious problem, the consequences of which may be observed both in the yield and in the prices of various crops. Credit is not available to the cultivator of small or even of medium-sized holdings, neither the amount nor the conditions being suitable.^{3/} Lastly, the lack of suitable storage space and of transport

^{1/} Recaredo Ossa: "The Wine-Growing Industry and its importance in our National Economy" ("La Industria Vitivinícola y su importancia en nuestra economía") "Panorama Económico". March 1949.

^{2/} "A Plan for Agriculture" ("Plan Agrario") op. cit.

^{3/} "Report of the Joint Working Party of ECLA/FAO, 1949 ("Informe del Grupo Mixto de Trabajo CEPAL/OEA, 1949).

/constitutes a serious

constitutes a serious obstacle to the further development of these activities. For instance, the potato harvest, which comes chiefly from Chiloé, is allowed to rot in great quantities almost every year for lack of the above facilities. The development of the fisheries is impeded thereby in like manner, despite all the efforts and vigilance devoted to it. The consumption of fish in Chile shows higher figures "per capita" than in any other Latin American country except Venezuela, and production has increased as shown in Table 11.

The fishing industry tends none the less to stagnate for lack of markets, which in its turn is chiefly due to transport difficulties.^{1/}

To sum up, the development of agriculture in Chile and of the associated activities is hampered by:

a) First and foremost - as must be obvious - by the natural resources available. These are not extensive and it can even be stated that on the whole they are already more or less well distributed and utilised. Chile has no "agricultural frontier".

b) Secondly, by the prevailing social and technical conditions, which most determine the extent to which the above-mentioned resources can be used today.

Neither of these limitations oppose insurmountable barriers to a substantial measure of progress in agriculture. On the contrary, both afford ample opportunities. "The increase of agricultural production can be achieved by the opening up of new territory (and by the improvement of that already in use)... and by the formulation of a new policy and by the improvement of present day technical methods. Whereas the first of these goals is attainable, chiefly by means of public works such as irrigation and means of communication, the second is subject to a slow process of evolution which alone is capable of raising the farmer's standard of living and technical knowledge."^{2/} Where he is concerned, it is also essential to remove the restrictions that

1/ "Report of the Joint Working Party ECLA/FAO", 1949. ("Informe del Grupo Mixto de Trabajo CEPAL/OAA") op. cit.

2/ "Agriculture in the District of Concepción and its Boundaries" ("La agricultura en la región de Concepción y la Frontera") op. cit.

keep him as it were physically imprisoned both economically and socially.

2. MINING, INDUSTRY AND BUILDING

Given the fact that the economy of Chile has had up to now the specific task of supplying raw materials to the world economic system, it follows that mining, which produces these materials, should be of vital importance; an importance much greater than warranted by its volume or on its quantitative contribution to the national income. Exports of saltpetre and copper represent approximately 80 per cent of the value of total exports and form in many cases the principal source of foreign exchange in the country, in its turn the basis of stability and economic progress. (See Tables 12 and 13). In fact, mining and agriculture taken together form the foundation of Chile's economic and social system.

Saltpetre, copper, iron and coal form the natural basis of the Chilean mining industry, though the importance of the first-named is declining since the manufacture of synthetic saltpetre. More than 90 per cent of copper production, 70 per cent of saltpetre production and virtually the entire production of iron and coal come from mining organisations controlled by foreign capital.

Mining, on a small scale, which is in the hands of Chilean entrepreneurs, represents a very small proportion of total production. It is of economic and social importance, however, as it employs about 22,000 workers out of a total of 90,000. There is no doubt that a greater and better use of modern technical methods and of more capable personnel would improve the situation existing in this branch of the mining industry. However, the lack of technique is due not so much to an insufficiency of mechanisation and skilled personnel, as to conditions deriving from the quality of the deposits and the lack of financial resources. The small mines are permanently in a state of crisis, caused by the conditions obtaining on the world market, for which they also produce, together with the factors mentioned above. They maintain a precarious existence, thanks to State help, extended for social rather

/than economic

than economic reasons, and which recently has taken the form of subsidies. This branch of activity does not therefore offer very bright prospects as regards the useful absorption of immigrant labour.

The development of the Chilean mining industry arose out of the economic consequences of the two World Wars. The movement towards industrialisation which started about 1920 gained impetus as a result of the great economic depression of the 'thirties, and acquired a more or less definite shape in 1939, with the creation by the government of the Corporation for the Promotion of Production. In a quarter of a century Chile has created an industry which is already the most important economic activity of the country as regards size, with enough diversity to supply most of the necessities of the country, such as manufactured articles (machinery excepted), liquids for combustion, rubber, cotton thread, sugar, chemical products (chiefly aniline), paper, medical supplies (especially antibiotic), tractors and motorised vehicles 1/. It is essentially a light type of industry producing mainly consumer goods 2/, and is chiefly composed of a large number of small enterprises together with a few of medium or large size.

Tables 14, 15 and 16 show the peak reached by the industrial movement as a whole and in its main branches of activity, and in comparison with other types of economic activity as well. Where volume and speed of development are concerned the following industries stand out: foodstuffs, textiles, clothes, chemical products, metallurgy, mechanics, leather and rubber. It is of course clear that economic

1/ "Study of the Economic Activities of Chile: Industries". ("Estudio de las economías nacionales: Industrias") -

2/ Less than 5 per cent of the total value of industrial production represents manufactured machinery.

/policy is

policy is striving, above all, to satisfy the most essential needs in consumer goods. Such a development would not have been possible without definite state intervention, which has played a decisive part in the progress of industrialisation by means of a policy of tariff protection, tax exemption, exchange control, monetary devaluation, subsidies and credit on easy terms.

Like all new undertakings, Chilean industry has to contend with difficulties which naturally produce defects. These obstacles are chiefly due to the lack of financial resources, resulting from the lack of national capital formation and from the inadequate flow of foreign investments. This financial stress, in conjunction with other factors, leads to excessive rates of interest and profit which have a repercussion on prices. Another difficulty is presented by the renewal of installations and of obsolete machinery, and yet another by the more up-to-date mechanisation of processes, with the resultant inevitable effects upon costs and upon the quality of the goods. The situation tends to deteriorate under circumstances external to actual industry, such as the shortage of foreign exchange and inflation, both of which aggravate the financial weakness of the country and the difficulty of obtaining essential imports.

The second obstacle of importance arises from the narrow limits of the domestic market, which in its turn depends on the traditional structure of Chilean society, that is to say, on the system of large country estates. The stunted purchasing power of the vast majority of Chileans limits severely the production of manufactured goods, impedes the adequate development of industrial organisations of optimum size, and the application of modern technical methods, and brings its pernicious influence to bear on the rise in costs and prices and on the decrease in the real value of wages. For these reasons industrial development does not produce the progress and well-being that its extent would appear at first sight to imply.

/Finally, Chilean

Finally, Chilean industry suffers from the lack of technicians, especially in the intermediate grades, and of skilled workmen. This shortage is getting steadily worse as industrialisation increases. Not enough persons are receiving, in Chile itself, the training necessitated by industrial progress, and voluntary immigration is far from filling the ever-increasing gap.

As a result of these limitations, Chilean industry finds itself hampered by various characteristic obstacles, which are doubtless of a temporary nature, for history shows them to be inherent in every industry at a similar stage of development. It survives on credit to an excessive extent, seeks disproportionate profits, and shows instability both in its general structure and in the type and quality of its products, many of which are imperfect. Finally, it costs a great deal and needs strong tariff protection. In addition, it is highly concentrated geographically, 55 per cent being located in the vicinity of Santiago, 20 per cent in that of Valparaíso and 10 per cent in that of Concepción; this involves acute problems regarding the supply of power, transport, housing and sanitation. Yet, despite all this, Chilean industry has been an inevitable undertaking; it shows signs of making increasing progress which is having an influence on the country, and on it are based hopes of eventual economic freedom ^{1/}.

Building has developed on different lines. The lack of buildings in Chile, whether private houses or offices for social and economic organisations, is well-known. Yet the building industry has not attempted to remedy this state of affairs. A complete set of interrelated causes have driven it to concentrate on the large urban centres and on the erection of luxury flats and houses, or at least at a high rental: the outstanding causes for this are the high cost of building sites and materials, the tendency to take advantage of inflation where capital stocks are concerned pending their conversion into house property, and the tendency to speculate for one reason or another.

^{1/} a) "Study of the Economic Activities of the Nation - Industries" ("Estudio de las Economías Nacionales - Industrias") (Corporación de Fomento de la Producción).

b) "Economic Development and Financial Institutions in Chile". (International Monetary Fund, 1949).

In this way building has become to a great degree unproductive and undoubtedly tends to cause inflation 1/.

The building industry in Chile absorbs a considerable amount of labour. As in the production of other goods, there is a lack of skilled workmen and were more available it would undoubtedly mean a rise in productivity; the more so as during periods of prosperity the building industry absorbs the manpower leaving agriculture, permanently or temporarily, and that leaving other occupations as a result of cyclical fluctuations: a considerable proportion of the labour employed in building is therefore occasional and ~~not~~ specialised. Furthermore, as can be seen from Chart 1, this activity is subject to wide fluctuations and it is consequently difficult to assess its capacity to absorb skilled workers permanently.

3. POWER AND TRANSPORT

The rapid development of industry, the increase in population and the growth of large towns in Chile have brought in their wake an acute shortage of motive power. This shortage is aggravated by the policy of using foreign capital, which plays an important part in the electrical industry: this is causing the reduction of new investments, which would have been indispensable to the timely development of electrical installations.

Coal production is not sufficient to solve the problem, nor is it

1/ "Economic Survey of Latin America", 1949, Chap. II: "The Building Industry" ("Industria de la Construcción"), United Nations, Economic Commission for Latin America.

yet known whether it will ultimately be possible to do so by means of oil, the exploitation of which is only in its early stages. It is known, however, that it could be solved by the adequate use of hydro-electric power. Chile is rich in "white coal". The hitherto unexploited resources in this direction are estimated to amount to 11 million kilowatts. Electric power actually in use amounts to 450,000 kilowatts, of which only a third comes from hydraulic power. The total amount of electrical power actually installed averages about 1,200 million kilowatt-hours a year.

The lack of electric current has for the past two years caused severe rationing in consumption during the winter months in Santiago and Valparaíso, the largest industrial centres of the country. This has caused a considerable shrinkage in the production of manufactured goods and constitutes a definite obstacle to the future progress of industry. The government is making efforts to develop hydro-electrical production by means of specialist organisations.

Transport constitutes another of the main difficulties in the way of economic progress, all the greater on account of the contours and general configuration of Chilean territory. The establishment of a network of railways and suitable roads would accordingly represent expenditure out of all proportion to the resources of the country, and this explains why, despite the work actually achieved and the resultant progress, transport in Chile suffers above all from the lack of a proper system of communications; as a result it is inadequate, full of problems, and expensive. Perhaps the most immediate solution lies in the use of coasting vessels. The 4,000 kilometres of coastline and the narrowness of the country make the sea appear the most logical, simple and inexpensive route for internal communications; the abundance of good timber for shipbuilding would facilitate the construction of a fleet of small sailing vessels capable of distributing the bulk of the
/goods produced

goods produced for internal consumption. It is however the case that Chile, in spite of the pressure of its geographical conditions, has shown no inclination to seek the assistance of the sea in solving its economic and social problems.

4. TRADE

It has already been observed that Chile's whole economy depends fundamentally on foreign trade, the fluctuations of which have wide repercussions on the entire economic and social structure of the country. Except in the cyclical downswings, Chile's foreign trade normally shows a balance in its favour which has been the mainspring of its economic progress. As is also the case with other countries whose consumption is insufficient and whose economic system is weak, a prosperous foreign trade which is conducive to an increase in the national income results in a greater demand for imports. At first these were principally consumer goods, but capital goods have gained in importance on account of the movement towards industrialization. Further, as always happens with countries exporting raw materials, the terms of foreign trade tend to deteriorate over a period of time where Chile is concerned 1/; this fact, considering the instability of the world market and the economic consequences of both world wars, means that the favourable balances obtained from foreign trade are not sufficient to finance Chile's economic development; neither are the small quantity of voluntary savings, nor the flow of foreign investments, so that it has been necessary to have recourse to inflation, as in the past, in order to defray the cost of the desired development of an industrialized and diversified national economy. Increasing

1/ "The Economic Development of Latin America and its Main Problems" ("El desarrollo económico de América Latina y sus principales problemas"), by Professor Raúl Prebisch, United Nations Economic Commission for Latin America.

/inflation has

inflation has of course led to an increased demand for imports. State intervention has accordingly had to restrict foreign trade, to apply measures for exchange control, for permits and quotas for imports and exports, for tariff protection, for subsidies both direct and indirect, and others of like nature; all these measures have been resorted to with varying success in the intention of preserving the equilibrium of the balance of payments; the country's resources are primarily devoted to the satisfying of essential needs so that the standard of living already achieved may be maintained, and at the same time development of the new economic system may continue.

Foreign trade, although painfully disorganised, has performed and continues to perform the function of stimulating economic progress. (See Tables 25 and 26).

The value of exports and imports has increased considerably in the last ten years, the increase in the former amounting to 80 per cent, and doubling itself in the latter. The former have likewise increased in volume; the latter have not, the figures remaining roughly the same as in 1938, which, considering the increase in population, implies a decrease in real imports per capita. Inaccurate evaluations make it difficult to calculate the exact relation that has developed between imports and national revenue. The last World War seems to have caused a decrease of the former in comparison with the latter, and although the gap between them began once more to close during the post-war period, imports do not yet appear to have attained pre-war figures; this is partly due to the degree of industrialisation which has been reached in the country itself at the present time 1/.

5. FINANCE

The most outstanding feature of Chilean finance consists in

1/ Economic Development and Financial Institutions in Chile, op. cit.

persistent and ever-increasing inflation, accompanied by a steady devaluation of currency. (See Table 27). Whatever may have been the first cause of inflationary tendencies, it is easy to explain their continuance. During the cyclical upswings Chile enjoyed a favourable position in its balance of payments which acted as a vigorous incentive to economic development on the one hand and to the pressure of inflation on the other. The downswings have also had the result of producing adverse trade balances, the effect of which is bound to increase when money is plentiful and costs are high. The resultant deflation assumed, moreover, so violent and acute a form that it was impossible to face its economic, social and political results. It was therefore necessary to have recourse to palliative measures such as easy bank credits, large loans to the Government and affiliated organisations on the part of the Central Bank, increase in currency, etc.; such measures as these merely serve to impede the readjustments of the national economic system to world conditions, and to maintain and even reinforce inflationary tendencies, thereby making monetary devaluation inevitable and prolonging the necessity for exchange control. As a result, the Chilean peso, which in 1870 was roughly worth 8 dollar, was only worth 20 dollar cents in 1920, and just before the last war was worth only 3.23 cents.^{1/}

Government proposals now aim at relating the theoretical figure more closely to the actual facts, fixing the rate of exchange at 1.54 dollar cents.

Of this inflation 94 per cent can be attributed to the increase in bank credits, and more than half of it to commercial bank credits. (See Table 28). The rest of the percentage given is accounted for by the liquidation of loans to the government, the greater part of which have served to wipe out deficits in the ordinary budgets, leaving a comparatively moderate sum for the financing of institutions

^{1/} Economic Development and Financial Institutions in Chile, op. cit.

concerned with economic development 1/. Another point is that the commercial banks are more interested in financing the distribution of goods than their production. This tendency can be explained by the high and immediate profits obtained on loans to commercial firms, both wholesale and retail, especially when there is inflation. Further, the said banks, and insurance companies also, have been inclined to act as house-property and building agents, using resources which might otherwise have been more productively invested 2/.

The increasing inflation, the ill effects of which are widespread among the population, is causing reactions of a serious nature and has been responsible for the aforementioned struggle between wage-earners and entrepreneurs to gain or at least retain the large share of income. Social unrest obliged the Government to intervene, the results of which intervention, apart from investments in economic development, are visible in public works and in the erection of cheap houses for wage-earners, and in the establishment of social services for their protection, insurance and general welfare - palliative measures necessary in view of the lowering of the standard of living.

Public expenditure has accordingly risen by leaps and bounds. In 1932 it amounted in the ordinary budget to 994 million pesos, but by 1950 it reached the sum of 15,000 million pesos. At the same time the number of civil servants has increased in the last ten years from 71,500 to over 112,000, and the Government finds itself obliged year

1/ "International Monetary Fund", op. cit.

2/ "Economic Development and Financial Institutions in Chile", op. cit.

/after year

after year to increase the salaries of part of this body of civil and military officials. The resultant deficits in each budget have been met by means of advances from the Central Bank and other state credit institutions, by issues from the national debt and by increased taxation. (See Table 30). Apart from the ordinary budget there are also accounts of expenditure authorised by special legislation and financed by loans, together with those of the numerous semi-fiscal institutions, as they are called: that is to say, organisations in which the government has a considerable stake and which include among their number those for economic development, the giving of credit, building, transport, colonisation, industry, education, trade and even the Press. In Chile the government is the largest investor and the largest entrepreneur in the country, and this is chiefly due to the fact that the national revenue is badly distributed, that average profits are scarce, and that savings are exceedingly scarce, so that private enterprise is thwarted at every turn ^{1/}. It ought, notwithstanding, to be observed that in the last financial years the ordinary budgets have decreased and have even shown a surplus.

During the last decade 70 per cent of the national revenue has come from taxation, about 10 per cent from other receipts from public funds, and 20 per cent from loans. (See Table 30). As is the case with countries whose social structure is similar to that of Chile, the system of taxation is characterised by negligible taxes on landed property (the result of the traditional power of the large landowners), by the preponderance of indirect taxes, especially on consumption (this is due to the protest against direct taxation on the part of some of the most important contributors, although they are gradually giving way), and by the relatively large proportion (one third of total taxes)

^{1/} Economic Development and Financial Institutions in Chile, op. cit.

represented by the tax on foreign firms who own the greater part of the exportable commodities of the country. Today taxes produce about 15 per cent of the national revenue; if we omit the third provided by foreign firms, the proportion decreases to 10 per cent, on the whole a moderate and even a light burden on the economic activities of the country. (See Table 31).

If in addition we bear in mind the high proportion of taxation on consumer goods, and the light income tax, and as the Government devotes a considerable part of its receipts to investments intended to increase the permanent capital of the nation, it cannot be said that the fiscal system is hindering capitalisation. However, if we consider the nature and amount of the standard of contributions, we can see that, together with the nature and amount of the expenditure, it exerts a reactionary influence on the whole financial structure of the country - on the amount and the distribution of the national revenue, on the system of credits, on financial stability and so forth ^{1/}. On the other hand, there is no doubt that the functions of the financial institutions under government auspices, considered as a body, have had a beneficial influence, for they have supplied at least in part the lack of both long-term and medium-term loans to assist economic development, and have speeded up the material progress of the country. But it must also be observed that the majority of these institutions tend to act as mere intermediaries between the Central Bank and the drawers of credit, and to limit themselves to the provision of working capital instead of resources for a more progressive development of the country's economy.

It would generally appear that such a financial structure should favour the formation of capital, because it naturally does favour the

^{1/} Economic Development and Financial Institutions in Chile, op. cit.

accumulation of profits in small sections of the community. Yet the rate of capitalisation is low - barely 7 per cent of the national revenue. (See Table 32). This is a modest figure, and in its distribution it shows a sharp inequality; the bulk of the population consumes extremely little and has no margin to save, and the sections of society that enjoy the largest incomes likewise tend to spend them, often on luxury articles, and in addition to invest their savings in profit-producing enterprises of a secure, remunerative but entirely unproductive nature.

If we speak solely in monetary terms, the revenue of the country has more than trebled itself in the last decade. But if we reduce the total amount to the monetary value it would have had in 1940, the increase by 1947 is only 12 per cent, which figure barely exceeds the increase in population.

To sum up, the economic system of Chile presents the following salient features:

- 1) A low standard of living, which forms part of the vicious circle of small incomes and low productivity.
- 2) The desultory capital formation due to inadequate savings, a situation which is aggravated by a strong propensity to consume; this in turn springs from the unequal distribution of wealth, although in point of fact both rich and poor have always been inclined to live beyond their incomes, be these ample and secure, or slender and precarious.
- 3) The dependence upon the exports of a few products only (copper and saltpetre, which represent 80 per cent of the country's total exports and as a result, a rigid economic pattern exceedingly susceptible to world cyclical fluctuations.
- 4) A chronic shortage of foreign exchange, the reason for which has always been the excessive expenditure on luxury goods by sections
/of society

of society with very large incomes 1/; it has also been accentuated by the determination to enforce a greater capital formation and to diversify production, with the object of decreasing the dependence of the country on foreign markets.

5) A persistent and ever-increasing inflation and devaluation of currency, originally due to historical, economic and social causes (e.g. the world devaluation of silver, the War of the Pacific), and subsequently used for the protection of vested interests (for all inflation modifies the distribution of revenue in favour of entrepreneurs); later this process was encouraged by the determination described in the preceding paragraph and by the resultant race between prices and wages.

6) The system of large landed estates, and, as a result, the weighty influence of the opinions and interests of the landlords in the social and economic evolution of the country.

7) A state of enforced transition from an economic system based primarily on agriculture and mining and bound to the exportation of a single type of commodity, towards a system predominantly industrial and based on diversification. Such a transition must inevitably lead to tense situations and disturbances caused by the tremendous nature of the change.

These, broadly speaking, are characteristics typical of all immature economic systems in the course of development towards maturity.

6. PLANS FOR ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

As has already been stated, the Chilean Government has been making considerable efforts and devoting many of its resources to the economic

1/ On this point the following work may be consulted, among many others of the same type: "Our Economic Inferiority" ("Nuestra inferioridad económica") by Francisco Antonio Encina, Santiago.

development of the country. At this present time there are in existence development programmes concerning the majority of economic activities, either on paper or already in process of being carried out.

In agriculture the Government has concentrated on the increase and improvement of irrigation. The Irrigation Department of the Ministry of Public Works, with an annual budget of about 120 million pesos, is extending the area under irrigation by approximately 7,000 hectares a year; and to this must be added some 3,000 more hectares irrigated by private enterprise. There are actually eleven different projects in the course of preparation, or of actual execution, at present in the hands of this department, the cost of which has been estimated at 740 million pesos. It is hoped that these undertakings will be completed in 1954, and once this has been done, it is calculated that 97,000 hectares of dry land will have been brought under irrigation and that another 146,000 hectares at present under spasmodic and imperfect irrigation will have substantially improved 1/. There are in addition preliminary plans for a project of extremely wide scope which would bring under irrigation 488,000 hectares at a cost of 3,425 million pesos.

The mechanisation of farming is also under active Government consideration. For instance, the Corporation for the Promotion of Production has been financing the acquisition and sale on credit terms of agricultural machinery, and has established 11 centres for the loan of services of mechanised equipment, the renting of machinery, training in how to operate and apply it, the provision of accessories and spare parts, and the effecting of repairs. The mechanised equipment of the Corporation has been employed over an area of 115,698 hectares during 1946-47 and 1947-48, at the request of 1,103 small farmers.^{2/} In 1948-49

1/ Report of the Joint Working Party of ECLA-FAO, op. cit.

2/ "A Study of the Economic Activities of the Nation: Industries"
(Estudio de las economías nacionales, Industrias"), op. cit.

this area was increased to 130,000 hectares 1/. At present there are some 4,200 tractors in use in Chile (i.e. one to every 470 hectares, in rotation), and about 1,000 harvest machines. It has been estimated that 1,121 million hectares could be cultivated by means of machinery, and that the area so cultivated to-day amounts to half this figure 2/.

Where industries connected with agriculture are concerned, the Corporation is intending to develop the production of beet sugar. This plan would, if put into execution, have a beneficial effect on agricultural and livestock production, and also on the industry and balance of payments of the country. There are plans for the erection of 11 factories each capable of producing 11,000 tons of raw sugar within a space of 70 working days. Capital investments would amount to 110 million pesos.

There is also in existence a development plan for industries connected with forestry. It aims at establishing, before 1960, four cellulose factories, two for paper, two for artificial silk, each with an initial productive capacity of 100 tons a day; two factories for pressed timber, capable of an initial production of 10,000 tons a year; a distillery for vegetable coal; another for wood-shavings, for the production of ethylic spirit and plastics; ten up-to-date sawmills, with a total annual capacity of 90 million cubic feet; and finally the modernisation of the sawmills already in operation. This plan would require a capital investment of 21,300 million dollars and 389 million pesos besides, for imported machinery and installations respectively.

As regards mining, the same Corporation has prepared or actually

1/ Message of the President of the Republic to the Congress 1949.

2/ Report of the Joint Working Party of ECLA-FAO, op. cit.

/initiated schemes

initiated schemes for the industrialization of copper-mining, zinc and lead-mining, and for the development of manganese production and of mining other than that of metals.

The National Electricity Company, which is under Government control, has outlined a number of schemes for the development of hydro-electrical power. Undertakings already completed or in course of execution are those at Pilmaiquén, El Abanico, El Sauzal and Los Molles, of which the power already installed amounts to 235,000 kilowatts; part of this can already be utilized. Schemes still in the paper stage concern installations at Rio Cipreses, Calafquén, Cuanahue, Juncal, Olivares-Mapocho, Laguna de Maule, Lago Laja, Puyehue-Rupanco, Canutillar and Mostazal. It is hoped that by 1953 there will be an increase in available power amounting to 300,000 kilowatts.

A project has also been initiated for the development of the metallurgical industry, thanks to the joint efforts of the Government, the Corporation for the Promotion of Production, and certain private companies, some of which are foreign; this consists of the formation of the Pacific Steel Company, and of the construction of the foundry of Huachipato, with an estimated annual production of 150,000 tons of steel, 700,000 tons of smelted iron, and metallurgical coke and its by-products.

Finally, there are plans for the development of medium and light metallurgy; for the construction of machinery; for the manufacture of electrical apparatus and materials, of chemical products (chiefly sulphuric acid and by-products of soda), and of building materials. The mechanisation of the leading ports of the country is also under consideration ^{1/}.

This general picture at least shows a vigorous drive towards the development of a diversified economic system, which will take full advantage of the resources of the country and of technical progress in

^{1/} "A Study of the Economic Activities of the Nation: Industries", op.cit.

order to raise the standard of living and of employment among the population.

B. POPULATION

1. DENSITY, GROWTH, COMPOSITION, DISTRIBUTION

In December 1949 the population of Chile totalled 5,740 million inhabitants according to official estimates. Both the census of 1940 (the last to have been taken) and the annual calculations of the Directorate General of Statistics, have been accused by Chilean specialists of exaggeration; if we accept this opinion as correct, then in the present year the population of Chile would amount to something between 5,471 million and 5,604 million inhabitants. The Population Division of the United Nations has however estimated a population of 5,903 million in Chile, as from about the middle of the present year. (See Table 37 and 38).

The population of Chile is a youthful one: its child population (from 0 to 14 years of age) is one of the largest in the world, whereas that of advanced years (55 and over) is relatively of only moderate dimensions. In addition, the population of Chile has a high birth-rate and as a result has so far been endowed with a vigorous reproductive impulse. Yet, in spite of this, there are two factors which limit the demographic development of the country. One consists in the high rate of mortality, especially infant mortality, so that the net rate of reproduction and that of the normal increase are only of moderate dimensions, which are out of keeping with the youthfulness of the population and its prolific vigour. The other factor is the shrinkage of the birth-rate.

Of these two limiting factors, the former is decreasing with reasonable speed as a result of progress in medicine and sanitation. The second, which began in 1928, shows on the other hand a light but continuous tendency to increase. For that reason, and to an extent

/resulting from

resulting from the combination of both manifestations, the proportion of children in the country is decreasing, whereas that of the older people is becoming larger. This means that the population is growing older, a fact which, over a period of years, will cause the gradual decline and eventual cessations of the natural increase of population. One could say that Chile is approaching maturity when the degree of urban influence, of industrialization and of a desire for material well-being, together with other factors not yet clearly defined, have produced a decrease in fertility, and ultimately in the number of the people. At all events the population of Chile has been increasing at an average annual rate of 1.3 per cent, which appears to have been kept up during the past decade. It is probable that similar natural increases will continue for many years to come. (See Tables 39 to 42).

The figures for the total population which have been given imply an approximate density of 8 inhabitants per square kilometre. Considering the diversity of conditions, both geographical and economic, that prevail in Chile, this average density is bound to conceal, and in fact does conceal, a great geographical inequality of distribution. For instance, although the central region has attained a density of 25.9 inhabitants, that of the north barely exceeds a density of two, and that of the south fails to produce a density of even one inhabitant per square kilometre. The pattern of distribution of the Chilean population will be better appreciated if the country be divided into economic districts, according to their agricultural features, their mineral resources and their industrial development. In this way, it is possible to delimit six special zones: the Greater Northern zone, with its deserts and its saltpetre; the Lesser Northern zone, with its steppes, copper and iron; the Central zone, with its Mediterranean type of agriculture, its valuable copper deposits and its importance

/as the

as the seat of most of the industry of the country; the Southern Central zone, with its natural parkland, used chiefly for agriculture and pasturage, with its coal deposits which may well cause it to become the second most important industrial centre of the country; the Southern zone proper, the land of valuable forests and plentiful pasture lands; and lastly, the extreme South, which can be sub-divided into forest and tundra, but which is in reality an entity on account of its topography and its uninterrupted labyrinth of creeks and archipelagoes. It may be observed at this point (see Table 44) that both the Northern zones and the extreme Southern zone are sparsely populated, whereas the Central, the Southern Central and the Southern zone proper show a much denser and to some extent a more homogeneous concentration of population; and that the disproportionate density in the Central zone is due to the existence within its boundaries of the two largest urban centres of the country, Valparaíso-Viña del Mar, and above all Santiago, and also to the inclusion therein of the fundamental nucleus of all the country's industries.

This traditional pattern of geographical distribution has been suffering for many years from a steady migration from the country to the towns. Chile, like all Latin American countries, is in the throes of a powerful movement towards urbanisation. If we compare the relative importance of towns and rural districts over a period of years, it is abundantly clear that the former have increased out of all proportion to the latter. In recent times it is obvious that Santiago in particular, and secondly Viña del Mar, have become the main centres of attraction, and that all the other parts of the country with the sole exception of the South have gradually become depopulated in favour of the province of Santiago where the capital, with its population of over a million inhabitants, exercises a centralising attraction. (See Table 43).

/The extremely

The extremely narrow scope offered by life in the country - the result of the system of land tenure, with the distressing social conditions that accompany it - has long since been driving the peasants deprived of land and even expelled from it, and others too, who were subjected to conditions of semi-slavery - the farm-hands - to seek a better fortune in the neighbourhood of the great cities; there, even if their social and economic conditions show no very great improvement, they are at least free to move about and are possessed of a certain degree of hope. This deep-seated tendency has in modern times been reinforced by industrialization, which is concentrated in particular in the vicinity of Santiago and Viña del Mar and makes increased demand on manpower; the insecurity and decline of the saltpetre mines has also played its part here. The South alone has succeeded, on account of its recent colonisation, in escaping a loss of population in favour of Santiago. Perhaps the development of a semi-heavy industry in the province of Concepción will be able to provide a counter-attraction in lieu of the one and only focus of attraction in existence today, which is responsible for the unbalanced geographical distribution of population in Chile.

2. THE GAINFULLY EMPLOYED POPULATION, EMPLOYMENT AND PRODUCTIVITY

The gainfully employed section of the population, which was a small one in 1930, is increasing steadily and even swiftly. In that year there were 2.3 passive persons living at the expense of every economically active inhabitant, but by 1940 this figure has been reduced to 1.8. It is probable that by now the preponderance of the passive population over the active has been further reduced to 1.4, which proportion may be considered normal. A good part of this relative increase in the gainfully employed population is due to the increasing use of women in paid employment. (See Table 49).

/The gainfully,

The gainfully employed part of the population is relatively older than the total population; that is to say, if we omit young people under 15, the rest of the working population contains a greater number of workers of mature years; in other words a higher percentage of older people are in employment, than those in the prime of life. On the other hand, the working-class shows a considerable proportion of children of 14 years of age or less. To sum up, about a third of the labour force in the country is composed of persons either too young or too old, and only just over half consists of persons of the age of most production.

As for the occupations concerned, there is a marked tendency to prefer unproductive occupations, including commercial distribution, rather than production, to an extent disproportionate to the mechanical and technical development of economic activities. It is also a significant fact that an increasingly large number of people are engaging in secondary occupations, within the framework of an equal production of economic commodities, so that essential tasks tend to fall to the lot of a smaller number.

With the rendering of services there is a similar tendency to prefer domestic or government service to services of general utility. The section of the working population employed in some sort of domestic service is really out of all proportion and is on the increase, for whereas in 1930 it equalled the industrial population, in 1940 it exceeded it in spite of the growing development of industry.

Generally speaking, the professional distribution of the working population goes to prove that Chile continues to be principally a land of cultivators, whether we consider the number of their general
/diffusion, or

diffusion, or the homogeneity of the social structure of the country. There is evidence too of progress towards more mature economic patterns: as the number of farm labourers shows a relative decline, that of persons engaged in industry or even more in domestic service shows a corresponding increase; this latter type of employment is undoubtedly due to definite and historical circumstances peculiar to the country, such as the unequal distribution of wealth and the beginnings of industry, both of which tend to place a large section of the poor and active population in the direct service of the high income groups.

Lastly, it may be said that where the social and economic composition of the working population is concerned, the manual workers constitute the largest group and the only one that has increased its relative importance; agriculture, domestic service and industry comprise its chief activities. The commercial employees do not represent a large proportion, and are almost all engaged in the rendering of services. Owing to the division of the land into small holdings and to the organic and financial weakness of industry, the number of employers, despite a relative decline, is very high, as is also the case with the employees. Whereas less than 70 per cent of the employed classes are engaged in production, only a quarter of the employers are similarly engaged. (See Tables 45 to 48).

Up to now unemployment in Chile has been negligible, except in brief periods of emergency.

The level of productivity of the working population of the country is low. There are a great many reasons for this. Some arise from its actual structure, which, as has already been observed, is remarkable for its excessive number of persons at ages unsuitable for full production. Further, the relative excess of adolescent and untrained

/workers who

workers who have not even learnt their trade during a routine apprenticeship, contributes a high degree of inefficiency to the working population as a whole, which in any event lacks both scope and means for the improvement of its technical standard.

There are also other causes engendered by the economic structure. Foremost among them is the preference for the rendering of services, especially with private individuals and with the Government, rather than production; this tendency robs the most important part of economic activity of a large proportion of the available skill. Besides, the small size of the average industrial and commercial companies, and their consequent multiplicity, inevitably involves the use of expensive and elementary processes; the natural result of this is seen in products and in services of poor quality and uneven standard of rising prices. In such a pattern, the majority of the workers do not even possess the proportion of the mechanical aids, and of the expert guidance in technical and administrative matters and in the organising of labour, which the country could on the whole make use of in view of its present stage of development and of its general economic activity.

Finally there are other reasons arising from the social structure of the country which must be held responsible for the low standard of living of the working class; their traditional poverty and lack of prospects and inducements to work are in their turn the causes of the bad health, lack of education, low morality, and absence of incentive which are typical of them, and which constitute further obstacles to productivity of a higher quality and greater output.

None of the reasons given for the low output of the Chilean workman should be attributed to his particular type of character or to his inherent behaviour. On the contrary, the Chilean workman is one of the
/strongest and

strongest and most docile in the world, and his capacity for work, for learning technical methods and for adapting himself to new conditions can stand very favourable comparison with that of workmen belonging to the best professional traditions and the highest standard of living. As a matter of fact, the productivity of the Chilean workman is higher than what might have been expected in view of his biological, economic and social circumstances.

The low productivity of the working population, taken as the result of the sum total of the historical circumstances under review, is in its turn responsible for the continuance of such a state of affairs, and above all for their low standard of living. The increasing maturity of the country's economy and the progress of education will gradually break this vicious circle.

3. STANDARDS OF LIVING, SALARIES, DISTRIBUTION OF THE NATIONAL INCOME

Given the social and economic conditions just described, the average standard of living of the Chilean population is necessarily low. It is of course much lower among the working class, and especially in country districts, whereas for a small number of landowners the standard of living can compare favourably with those attainable in the richest countries in the world.

The immediate causes of this state of affairs are, first, the slender proportions of the national income; real income per capita, although it ranks fifth in the whole of America and third in Latin America, nonetheless reaches but a modest figure; and secondly - and chiefly - the extreme inequality with which the revenue is distributed. Table 54 shows this very clearly, and proves the prevailing poverty of the common people (who comprise three-quarters of the total population), the numerical and economic weakness of the middle-class, and the

/greatly reduced

greatly reduced numbers of the upper class. Although the table under reference refers to the situation in 1942, and there are not sufficient data to ascertain the present one, there are reasons to suppose that it would not differ materially from the former. Real national income is moreover only slightly superior to that of 1942 and its increase barely exceeds that of the population.

The present wage levels go to confirm these statements. Although wages paid by the day and salaries in general, especially those of non-agricultural workers, have shown very considerable increases, the curve showing the actual value of these emoluments is far below that showing prices and the cost of living, so that real wages and salaries are only very slightly superior to those of 1938.

Agriculture continues to be the least rewarding of all employments. If we take as a basis the wages of agricultural labourers during the five-year period between 1940 and 1945, the following ratios appear between the wages for the chief types of economic activity: 1/

Agriculture	100
Building	163
Industry	258
Trade	279
Mining	367
Transport	427

Table 53 A-1 shows how such a ratio remains unchanged in its essentials over a period of years.

The system of land tenure is preserving a social pattern in the country districts of Chile which is as archaic as it is economically evil. Agricultural labourers may be divided into two classes. Some are a permanent source of labour for the large landowners, on account of their agreements regarding the lease - agreements which are nearly always merely verbal, and of unspecified duration; according to them

1/ The situation regarding agriculture and the breeding of livestock (La Realidad agropecuaria), in The Economic Picture (Panorama económico), April 1947.

the labourer and his family are bound to perform whatever tasks they are allotted, at any time or season and without any limitation to the number of working hours; the landlord, for his part, pays for such services by means of a small daily money wage, an even smaller food ration for the people at work each day, and grants, on precarious terms, some land, not as a rule exceeding half a hectare per family, on which the latter may build their hut - a wretched hovel where they all live in one room - and cultivate a few fruit trees. The tenant may also raise a few head of cattle in the meadows of the estate. The tenant, in fact, spends his life in a manner that may be termed semi-slavery.

The remainder of the agricultural population which is not accommodated on country estates constitutes a mass of nomadic labour in a perpetual state of migration within the country's boundaries, wandering from one estate to another in times of ploughing, sowing or harvest, while in the slack season they flock to the cities to offer their services there. These landless day labourers receive for their work in the fields wages in money only which, with food in addition, are higher than those paid to the tenants on the estates. But their lack of a home, and the haphazard nature of their work drags them down to an even lower level than the tenants. Tables 53 A-4 and 43-C show the earnings of the tenant and of landless agricultural workers, and the probable numbers of both groups about 1943. The difficult economic situation where agricultural labour is concerned is all the more serious in that it affects the largest class of society of the country. 1/

1/ The very large bibliography of works on the social conditions of both types of agricultural workers began to be compiled in 1860 with those of Don Claudio Gay, and ends in recent years with such works as:

- a) A Plan for Agriculture (Plan Agrario), op. cit.
- b) Food levels in Chile (L'alimentation populaire au Chili) by Professor Carlo Dragoni and Dr. Etienne Brunet, a study made with the co-operation of the Chilean Government and the League of Nations, Santiago, 1938.
- c) Political Economy and Economic Policy (Economía política y política económica) by Professor Santiago Macchiavello Varas, op. cit.
- d) The National Economy and the Copper Industry (La economía nacional y la industria del cobre), op. cit.

The average earnings of non-agricultural labourers, although twice or even four times as large as those of the latter, are nonetheless inadequate for a reasonable standard of living.

It is a fact peculiar to Chile that employees as a class, despite their relative unimportance, form a more vigorously competitive social group than do the workmen. As a result their average salary is three times greater than that of the day labourers; the salaries of civil servants are usually higher than those in private firms; the minimum wage for employees is fixed by law, but not that of day labourers, so that the employee is better protected than the workman; all economic activities other than agriculture do in fact offer salaries which, on the average, exceed the minimum wage. On the whole, however, only mining and banking offer remuneration that can be considered in keeping with the basic necessities of a family of the lower middle class. Generally speaking, employees share in the economic stress which affects the greater part of the population, even though it may be to a lesser degree than the workman; the relevant tables attached to this text are illustrations of this. (See Tables 50 to 53).

In 1940, 90 per cent of the wage-earning class was not earning enough, in view of the cost of living, in order to be able to support a family of average size at a reasonable standard, even as regards only basic necessities. Only 17 per cent of private employees and 19 per cent of civil servants enjoyed an income adequate for the above purpose. Where workmen are concerned the percentage dropped to 0.3, and 77 per cent of their total number were not even paid a bare living wage for themselves alone. ^{1/} (See Table 54). It may be reaffirmed that the situation today is not materially different. As a result of this general level of incomes and of the standard of agricultural and livestock productivity, the average diet per capita - and especially that of the

^{1/} Essays on the Chilean Population (Ensayos sobre la población chilena), op.cit.

working class - is deficient in proteins, calcium, phosphorus, vitamins and fats, and, consequently, in calories. The chief shortages consist in milk and its products, in meat, fish, eggs, potatoes, vegetables and oil, and especially in cereals and sugar. Further, the bulk of the fats consumed are in a highly concentrated form and accordingly indigestible, which causes a considerable degree of sickness and a high percentage of deaths from liver disease. (See Table 55).

The agricultural and livestock production of recent years has, by dint of increasing the cultivation of cereals, at the expense of vegetables and of cattle raising, reinforced the tendency to eat energy-producing and starchy foods at the expense of protective foods. There remains the excessive consumption of liquor. (See Table 57). As is usually the case in social and economic circumstances of a similar type, alcoholism produces undeniably evil effects among the working class, especially in view of the deficiency of their diet, and of the habit of getting intoxicated on pay-day.

The consumption of articles of clothing shows a similar deficiency. Table 56 indicates the shortages in the average supplies of clothes and shoes. As the tables always deal with average figures, these particular ones appear to place the situation of a very great number of Chileans in a better light than is actually the case. A great many men, women and children are wearing the cast-off clothing of the wealthier classes. For instance, the trade in second-hand clothes is considerable and the worn and ragged appearance of their clothes is characteristic of the working class.

Similar conditions prevail as regards housing. The shortage of houses has been calculated to amount to something between 400,000 and 500,000. Further, the Technical Section of the Department for Working-Class Housing reckoned in 1944 that it was necessary to renew

36 per cent of the houses already in existence. The 1940 census gave the numbers of houses in the country as 878,798, a house being defined as a roofed building of any kind which was used as a human habitation. According to the College of Architects, 48 per cent of these are inhabited by more than four persons per room. An unspecified number of these dwellings are hovels deficient in the simplest necessities for the maintenance of a reasonable housing standard. In view of the fact that the number of inhabitants has been increasing annually at an average rate of 70,000, it follows that 21,500 new houses are needed each year only to house the increase in population. The number of permits for building issued annually averages 2,500.

These facts demonstrate the gravity of the problem. The size of the obstacles in the way of its solution is augmented by the high degree of urban concentration which increases every year, and by the tendency to erect luxury buildings, or at least buildings at a high rental. Housing conditions are among the most pernicious factors that influence the standard of living of the Chilean working class.

The hygiene of the working class naturally depends on the state of affairs outlined in the preceding pages. The figures showing the death rate as a whole and deaths from infections and contagious diseases are exceedingly high; that of infantile mortality is the highest in the world, although it is only fair to point out that these various death rates, though relatively very high indeed, have shown a decrease in recent years which is quite considerable, and to that extent encouraging. The figures showing the average expectations of life are the lowest in the world, and it must be remembered that they are determined to a great extent by the working class. (See Tables 59 to 61).

This is in fact the principal cause of the high proportion of

/absenteeism among

absenteeism among Chilean workmen, one of the biggest obstacles in the way of the necessary increase of productivity. It is however generally believed that about 50 per cent of this absenteeism is not justifiable and comes from low professional standards. But one must remember that the poor diet, the bad conditions of housing, health, and the lack of social incentives inevitably create a general debility of body and passivity of mind. One must also bear in mind such factors as the difficulties of transport between the home and the place of work, usually separated by hours of expensive and uncomfortable travel in overcrowded and unsafe vehicles; this is due to the concentration of industry in over-populated cities whose public services are constantly and heavily overburdened by the pressure of requirements.

It is a fact that the Government together with the help of progressive medical and sanitary services, has succeeded in reducing the death rate to a remarkable degree. Striking advances have been made in matters of public health.

Lastly, it is necessary to mention conditions concerning education. (See Table 58). There are a fair number of illiterates in Chile. The school attendance on the average low, is declining still further, as there is an increasing number of children who do not go to school. As for as technical education, the narrowness of its scope is gravely handicapping the economic progress of the country.

To sum up, it may be stated that the low standard of living in Chile is due to the following:

1. An inadequate national income, due in its turn principally to low productivity; the goods and services available per capita are insufficient for the reasonable necessities of life and are increasing only a fraction faster than the actual population.

2. The bad distribution of the national income, determined by the extremely small emoluments and the system of land tenure; the majority of the population live at a level only just removed from destitution, and its consumption is lower than is necessary for sound mental and physical health, and for the provision of markets for the more plentiful

/types of

types of products.

3. Technical and educational deficiencies, especially the lack of adequate training, as regards both its length and its intensiveness, for technical instructors and skilled workmen; both are indispensable to all economic development upon which the standards of living of the people depend.

It must however be emphasised that Chile is striving to emerge from these straits; that its people are gifted with plenty of latent mental energy; and that a systematic and scientific effort launched simultaneously against the three chief obstacles described, can open the doors on prospects of progress and hope.

II. IMMIGRATION IN CHILE : A SUMMARY OF ITS HISTORY

1. MAIN FEATURES

Like all American nations, Chile has been formed by immigration. Yet it cannot be said that Chile has ever become the point of attraction of important migratory movements. As a matter of fact, the migration from which the Chilean nation arose is the only truly significant one of its history and was even then on so moderate a scale as to be out of all proportion to its effects.^{1/} The remoteness of the country, situated as it is right off the chief routes between America and Europe, together with its geographical features which cause it to be walled off from the rest of the world by wide oceans, by mountains and by deserts, can be held to account for this, especially at a time when science and technical progress had not yet levelled and shortened the routes around the world.

The entirely Spanish immigration by which Chile was founded can be divided into two periods. The first lasted until the middle of the seventeenth century and consisted chiefly of Estremenians and Andalusians, as may be seen from the language and from the social traditions, relating in particular to architecture and dress, of the Chilean people. In the eighteenth century immigration revived until it was interrupted by the Napoleonic Wars. In this second movement, the majority were Navarrese, Old Castilians and especially Basques who were able and active merchants and soon replaced the almost extinct families of the original Spanish settlers at the top of the social and economic scale.

During the period of Spanish domination, non-Spanish immigrants were few and far between. Their entry and residence were severely restricted by law and even more so in practice, so that about 1810 less than 100 citizens had succeeded in settling in Chile.^{2/} With the advent of national independence, the immigration of Spaniards was discontinued for many years. The provisions of Chilean law, which in certain circumstances obliges them either to become naturalised or else to leave the country, also caused a considerable number to emigrate. On the other hand

^{1/} See page 3 of Introduction

^{2/} Lais Thayer Ojeda, op. cit.

immigrants from other countries began to arrive, starting with the French, the English, the Germans and the Swiss. When the great emigration movement caused by the development of the Industrial Revolution in Europe began to assume large proportions, Italians came also, Yugoslavs and people from Central Europe, followed by an Arab immigration originating chiefly from Palestine and Syria. The influx of Chinese into Chile had existed on a very small scale over a long period, but in recent years it has been on the increase. Since 1839, and in more recent years, the Spanish immigration has revived and has exceeded all others in quantity, on account of its historical, linguistic and cultural affinities. The Second World War and the events that have preceded and followed it have increased immigrations due to economic causes, and have added others arising from political and social ones.

Except in certain cases that will be considered in due course, these were all spontaneous immigrations. Their general characteristics normally appear to be as follows: first, a few immigrants of various nationalities arrive, actuated by personal misfortunes; if they prosper, they soon encourage their relatives and friends to follow them until a stream of immigration is induced to flow, in varying volume, from the mother country. This process, new as popular as in the days of old Spanish migrations, is being energetically pursued today, and does in point of fact constitute the chief cause of immigration in Chile.

Once settled, nearly all these immigrants engage in commercial or industrial activity. They accordingly add to the overcrowding of the cities and to the demographic and economic centralisation of the chief gainfully employed sections of the community; these are located, as we have seen, in the provinces of Santiago and Valparaiso, where most of the foreign inhabitants of Chile reside. Up to now an increasingly large proportion of the influx of immigrants have succeeded in reaching the summit of the social and economic ladder with comparative speed. As a general rule foreigners and their descendants belong to the upper levels of society. This is partly due to their habits of hard work and to their characteristic standards as regards consumption and /savings, but

savings, but also to the generous and considerate attitude of the Chilean people towards foreigners, especially Europeans. It is, moreover, generally the case that immigrants become genuinely naturalised and assimilate themselves rapidly to the country, retaining only a sentimental affection for their homeland, and certain characteristics typical of its culture.

It is impossible to give a statistical account of the process of migration to Chile. The relevant registers do not specify whether new arrivals in the country are immigrants or not; that is, whether or not they intend to settle there for good, or only to live there for a certain length of time and then leave. Neither is any distinction drawn between foreigners who leave the country with the intention of returning, and those who leave it for good. The only facts available are the numbers of foreigners who enter the country and the number of those who leave it, so it can be assumed that the difference between the two sets of figures at the end of the year represents the annual number of immigrants. Of course such an assumption is bound to be inaccurate. The annual difference between the numbers of foreigners who arrive and those who leave may be on the credit side but in that case it does not only include immigrants, but also those whose temporary residence is prolonged over a considerable period; and if it is on the debit side, then it may include a certain number of immigrants who are re-emigrating, or who are only leaving the country for a definite term and intend to return later. It follows that the registers showing the movements of foreigners can only provide a remote indication of the extent of the immigration movement. Neither does the number of foreigners resident in the country correspond with the number of immigrants actually settled in it; the former includes a certain number of temporary residents, and the latter includes those who have become naturalised and have ceased to be foreigners. Both distinctions, and more particularly the latter, are of considerable importance in each case.

Taking the above inaccuracies into consideration, Table 62 gives a rough idea of the volume of the immigration movement in Chile from
/the middle of

the middle of the last century to the present day. Its scope can be seen at a glance, for in one century about 212,000 presumed immigrants appear to have settled in the country, implying an average annual rate of 2,120, or 0.5 per thousand of the average population during that century. But genuine immigration from 1906 onwards has been definitely lower than this figure.

The graph showing the immigration movement shows the following curve: it passes through very low levels up to 1882; at that date it rises sharply, on account of the planned immigrations which will shortly be described; when these come to an end at the close of the century, the curve falls again and remains at a low level, though higher than before 1882, until 1907; then it rises sharply once more, and soon reaches a peak with the outbreak of the First World War, which inevitably interrupted the movement; when peace was signed the curve continued at a reasonable height until 1925; in the following decade it begins to fall at irregular intervals, after which it shows a slight rise, which continues up to the outbreak of the Second World War; from 1940 to 1943 there was practically no immigration and the registers show that more foreigners left the country than came into it; but after 1946 the curve once again shows a fairly steep rise.

The foreigners resident in Chile today account for 2.16 per cent of the total population. The most numerous group is the Spanish one, followed by the German and the Italian groups; next come relatively large groups of Argentines, Arabs, Bolivians, Yugoslavs, Britishers, Americans, French and Peruvians, in that order. It should be stated that the groups from the three neighbouring countries and that of the United States cannot on the whole be considered immigration groups, for the economic and cultural relations between Chile and these four countries cause reciprocal movements of population which are not in the nature of immigration.

2. PLANNED IMMIGRATION.

From the earliest days of national independence, the belief was fostered in Chile that the economic and cultural development of the country would benefit from immigration, especially that of Europeans.

/A numerically small

A numerically small immigration was considered more desirable than a mass immigration; the former could be directed in particular towards the colonisation of areas underdeveloped as regards population and economic activity, and could provide the basic knowledge of technical methods essential to the progress of industry.

As early as 1817, when national independence had only just been won, Don Bernardo O'Higgins, Supreme Head of the Republic, requested the Chilean representative in Great Britain, Don Antonio José de Irisarri, to promote "by means of the whaling ships sailing directly for the Pacific" the emigration to Chile of the Dutch, Swiss, English and other Europeans, "their religion being no impediment." The War of Independence had revealed the extent of the country's lack of technical knowledge, and the Supreme Head of the Republic wished to remedy this by encouraging immigration from the countries which then had the highest reputation in this respect. Thus in 1824, when Don Fernando Errázuriz, acting Supreme Director, promulgated the first immigration law whereby the franchise and various privileges were granted to immigrants who would establish factories for making ropes and rigging out of hemp, for linen thread, for copper manufacture and other industries. The political situation in those days was not, however, favourable towards immigration, and these attempts bore no fruit.

The planned immigrations, or those promoted by the Government, were due to the initiative of Don Manuel Montt and Don Antonio Varas, both ministers under President Bulnes. In 1843, at the suggestion of the former, an official commission was charged with the study of the whole question of colonisation in the south; this had been proposed in an official report by the Intendent Cavareda. The Commission duly performed its task and stated that the South should be colonised by European immigrants and Chilean peasants. So in 1845 a new immigration law was passed, and a German-born sergeant-major of the Army engineers, Don Bernardo Eunom Philippi by name, undertook a first attempt at colonisation, with Government support and that of the said law; in that same year (1845) 75 German artisans from Hesse arrived in Chile under contract to Philippi, and settled in Osorno, where they immediately made their

/presence felt

presence felt by dint of economic and social progress.

The success of this attempt persuaded the Government to send Sergeant-Major Philippi to Europe as general immigration agent, and soon after, in 1850, Don Vincente Pérez Rosales was appointed as Government delegate for the reception and installation of immigrants in the province of Valdivia, which in those days included those of Osorno and Llanquihus.

The misty country of Valdivia, region of lakes and primeval forests was in those days so sparsely populated that it only contained three tiny centres of population: Valdivia, La Unión and Osorno, the importance of which has declined considerably since the proclamation of independence. There were no roads, and the rivers were the only means of communication and transport. Cultivation was limited to the vicinity of the towns, and the numerous apple orchards planted by the Spaniards had been allowed to grow wild. By far the greatest part of the territory was covered with tracts of tangled forest which had no authentic owners and the fruits of which were common property. The Government accordingly decided to regain possession of these great stretches of unowned territory, and to grant a permanent lease, or to sell at a low price and in instalments over a long period, the land required for the settling of immigrants in suitably fertile districts capable of road development.

The publication of these proposals gave rise to feverish activity in the buying and selling of land. A Chilean law passed in order to prevent the despoiling of Indian proprietors ignorant of the system of land registers and of title-deeds for landed property facilitated the transactions. These consisted in finding Indian chiefs willing to sell land which had never been theirs in return for a modest sum by way of compensation. The difficulty of demarcation in virgin territory was overcome by the marking-off of the banks of a stream or lake into sections of a certain length, and then tracing out paths perpendicular to them at each end; theoretically these stretched to the sea, or to the snow mountains, or to the banks of the river that formed the northern boundary of the unpopulated region. The agreement was drawn up in the

/presence of paid

presence of paid professional witnesses called "jurors." In this manner the country around Valdivia was soon provided with legal owners in all its length and breadth, and the Government was unable to find land for the immigrants, for the newly-improvised landowners began to ask exorbitant prices for their properties. It even seemed as though the whole immigration experiment would fail. The first 85 immigrants were installed thanks to the generous gift of Colonel Don Benjamin Viel, an old soldier of Napoleon's, who had become a naturalized Chilean, of the island of Tejas, opposite Valdivia. In the entire region Pérez Rosales was only able to claim 683 hectares on behalf of the state. ^{1/}

Pérez was in charge of this first planned immigration up to 1870, first as Government Delegate, and later as Consul-General in Hamburg. The fruitful results of the enterprise are mainly due to his steadiness and energy and to his enthusiasm for the immigration project with its leaven of social and economic progress. During those years a total of 1,768 German immigrants arrived and colonized the country around Valdivia, La Unión and Osorno, founding also the city of Puerto Montt on the shores of Reloncavi; and 36 German families settled in Los Angeles. It is an undeniable fact that this German immigration gave the South of Chile a vigorous and healthy impetus towards activity and progress, and the same results may be imputed to subsequent immigrations. It may

It may be useful to note the circumstances of these immigrants. They were all farmers or country workers with experience; they all had adequate economic resources which enabled them to pay for transport and installation expenses and even to purchase real estate, so that their settlement cost the state nothing. Lastly, they formed associations of a democratic nature which corresponded to larger ones in their mother-countries.

Pérez Rosales draws attention to the psychological problems which the first planned immigration had to face. Agricultural entrepreneurs hoped to obtain from it a supply of cheap labour, whereas the working class were afraid that, in such a case, the wages of the new arrivals would react unfavourably on their already very low standard of living.

^{1/} "Memoirs, Op. Cit.

Pérez Rosales stressed the error of both points of view, saying that all carefully selected immigration gave added employment and increased wages by dint of encouraging economic activities and thus raising productivity, without any loss of profits for employers, and indeed for the general good. Further, the arrival of foreign immigrants under Government auspices also aroused suspicions of a political and religious nature, both of which have been proved by events to have been unjustifiable.

Lastly, it is interesting to consider what essential requisites should be offered to the immigrant in order to ensure that he settles down successfully. Pérez Rosales came to the following conclusions from his own experience: - First the possibility of obtaining citizenship with full rights, so that the immigrant can regain a country of his own and become attached to it; religious freedom; next that of founding a family who will enjoy the protection of the law; and that of becoming a proprietor, and of attaining economic freedom. 1/

In 1883, a new era of planned immigrations was initiated by the Government. German, Swiss, Spanish, French, Italian and English immigrants colonized part of the Southern Central zone of Chile; that is, the region bounded by the Bío-Bío and the Toltén rivers respectively; 2,056 immigrants settled in the towns of Traiguén, Cotulmo, Victoria, Quillén and Quechereguas. Chiloé was also colonized, and in the extreme south an attempt was made to colonize Rio Baker; thanks to the immigrants, various industries were developed, some of which were in a rudimentary stage, and others entirely new to the country. Actually, up to 1890 planned immigrations were chiefly agricultural. It was President Balmaceda who gave preference to the immigrants with technical and industrial qualifications who were thenceforward to predominate. The revolution of 1891 put an end to this second stage of the immigration movement, in the course of which 25,000 immigrants had landed in Chile.

In 1905 planned immigration was undertaken once more, and the National Congress voted funds for its development. In 1910 this policy came to an end, but within those 5 years some 22,000 immigrants had become absorbed into the population of Chile.

In 1939 two immigration movements came into existence under

1/ "Memoirs", Op. cit.

/Government auspices;

Government auspices; the first allowed into the country German, Austrian, Hungarian, Polish and Czechoslovak Jews who had been outlawed by the Nazi regime. Owing to the lack of official data it is impossible to calculate the exact number of these immigrants, but reliable sources estimate it as 15,000. ^{1/} The second planned immigration movement admitted about 2,000 Spanish republicans, exiled likewise as a result of the fall of the Second Spanish Republic. New political emigrants from Spain who came of their own accord during the next few years brought the numbers of this group up to about 3,000.

Lastly, in 1948 the Chilean government signed a convention with the International Refugee Organisation, whereby it pledged itself to receive into the country 2,000 families of displaced persons from Europe; this immigration had amounted to 2,772 persons up to January 1950.

Before examining the development of the last three immigration movements, it is important clearly to consider two of their aspects. In the first place these immigrations are primarily motivated by humanitarian considerations, and only secondly, by a desire for economic progress. Further, the part played by the Chilean Government in the first two movements was confined to the selection of immigrants and to the granting of free entry into the country. In the case of the third, the selection is the duty of the International Refugee Organization, at whose expense the immigrants travel; the Chilean Government provides them with lodging and helps them to find employment.

The immigration of Jews has been severely criticised as regards its organisation, development and results. Where these last are concerned, the general opinion appears to be that it has been injurious to the economy of the nation. The immigrants are accused of having made false statements concerning their profession in order to gain admission into the country, and having once done so, of having concentrated themselves in Santiago forgetting their promises, and acting as agents in purely commercial activities, often in the nature of speculations. This opinion is so widespread and deep-rooted that a considerable number of the entrepreneurs who were consulted in the

^{1/} "Essays on the Population of Chile", Op. Cit.

/course of the

course of the enquiry carried out in connection with the present work declared themselves to be resolutely opposed to further Jewish immigrations. The lack of official data makes it difficult to ascertain at the present time the degree of truth that may lie behind the above accusations. Nevertheless it is as well to note their existence and the widespread belief in them, which suggests the necessity of a technical and statistical investigation of the problem. Otherwise there is a risk that judgments passed without being based on accurate information may corrupt the liberal outlook of the Chilean people and engender racial or religious distrust.

In its economic aspect the immigration of political exiles from Spain has given rise to no misgivings. In their case they appear to have scattered themselves over the country, with less of a predilection for Santiago than is usually the case. There are relatively important groups in Valparaiso, and in the north and south of Chile. Nor have these immigrants shown any excessive preference for commercial occupations; the number engaged in industry is gradually increasing, and others are making a definite mark in such activities as fishing, mechanics, chemical products and the book trade.

The danger of opinions unrelated to facts in matters of immigration shows very clearly if one analyses the productive elements and the economic results of the immigration planned jointly by the Chilean Government and the International Refugee Organization. In the course of the previously mentioned enquiry, most of the entrepreneurs consulted expressed unfavourable views of the said immigration and alleged that its defects were as follows: -

(1) The selection of the immigrants was unsatisfactory, because
(a) Those selected included an excessive number of persons who, on account of their age or profession, were useless to Chile's economic development;

(b) Many made claims regarding technical knowledge which they did not in fact possess, and which were not properly verified;

(2) Most of the immigrants were lacking in the qualities of character

/necessary in order

necessary in order to adapt themselves to Chilean conditions of work and life in general, because

(a) they had too exalted an opinion of themselves, and asked for emoluments out of all proportion to their abilities ;

(b) they were impatient to attain a high standard of living; they had scarcely signed a contract when they changed their jobs in an attempt to better their circumstances, or else established themselves on their own.

The demographic and professional composition of the immigrant group and the methods whereby they have become absorbed into the economic life of Chile are shown in Table 64, which has been compiled on the basis of data given by the Social Service Section of the Directorate-General of Labour. As far as the demographic aspect is concerned, and in spite of the absence of statistics giving the ages of the adult group, all the immigrants who had arrived in Chile up to 1950 were on the average of a suitable age, especially in view of the apparent absence of elderly people, and included an excellent proportion of gainfully employed persons in relation to unemployed ones.

The data available as regards the professional aspect concern only those immigrants who arrived in 1948 and 1949; of these, 10 per cent of the active immigrants were first-class technicians, 25 per cent were technicians of average ability, and 60 per cent were skilled workmen; 70 per cent of their professions or trades were connected with production, and 55 per cent of this number with industry; the number of unskilled workmen only amounted to 5 per cent.

It may be argued that these figures refer to purely nominal professions which they did not in fact practice. It is therefore necessary to examine the types of work actually engaged in by immigrants. The only data available refer to those who arrived in 1948, but they are exceedingly detailed, and show that, in the course of settling down to life in Chile these immigrants took up employment and filled positions of an economic nature which on the whole do agree with the professional status they claimed to possess; further, 97 per cent of the active members of the group found work immediately, 77 per cent in paid /employment and

employment and 20 per cent on their own. On the 31st of January of the following year the professional distribution of this particular group was substantially unchanged; it was as follows: - 89 per cent gainfully employed, 72 per cent without change of profession and 56 per cent working under the same employer; ^{1/} 17 per cent in independent positions; the numbers employed in production greatly exceeded those engaged in non-productive work, and the immigrants working on their own had opened 34 industrial establishments, 3 commercial ones, and one for sanitation.

If we study the group of those who did change their employment, we find that it only amounts to 13 per cent of the total, and if we leave aside those in whose cases a change was justified, the percentage of those who changed for unexplained reasons is reduced to only 5 per cent.

The complaints of employers against immigrants under contract to them only concern about 12 per cent of this group (8.8 per cent of the total group). A large number of these complaints are in direct contradiction to the facts. Complaints against bad conduct only concern 3 per cent of the immigrant employees, and only 2 per cent of the whole.

In view of this analysis there can be no risk in asserting that none of the criticisms under reference appear to have any foundation in fact. On the contrary, the immigrants who came to Chile under the joint auspices of the Chilean Government and the International Refugee Organization have so far shown remarkable ability in overcoming difficulties caused by their ignorance of the language and by the social and economic changes in their surroundings. They have taken part in productive activities with excellent results, and definitely represent a highly desirable type of immigration as regards both technical and moral qualities.

3. CONTRIBUTIONS OF IMMIGRATION.

The fundamental nature of the part played by immigration in the development of Chile through several generations is abundantly clear even

^{1/} 67 per cent of those under contract.

/if one only

if one only studies that which contributed towards the founding of the Chilean State. Even if we limit it to the influence exercised by immigrants on the economic development of the country since its existence as an independent nation, we see that the role of the immigrant population has been considerable.

The dates which flag the various stages of the economic progress of the country are linked with the names of immigrants. The beginnings of the textile industry are due to Heytz, who was Swiss; those of the paper industry to Rudloff, a German; Chilean metallurgy owes its origins to Englishmen, Germans and Spaniards, such as Orchard, Morrison, Klein, K  pfer and Victoria; the brewing of beer was initiated by the German Anwandter. The history of mining, navigation and the railways contains the names of immigrants, among which stands out the name of the American, William Wheelwright. Two immigrants, Gay and Domeyko, have also made an indelible mark on the economic history of Chile, while another immigrant, Philippi, was responsible for the development of immigration itself.

The definite contribution made by German, Spanish, French, Italian and Swiss immigrants to the colonization of the southern regions has already been mentioned. A Spanish immigrant, Jos   Men  ndez, and a Russian, Maarice Braun, started the breeding of livestock and the wool production were introduced by Alsatian and French immigrants.

The part played by immigrants in the development of Chile's economic pattern has increased year by year, until the immigrant population, though relatively small in number, has assumed leadership in all types of economic activity and has performed an amount of work ten times greater than might have been expected in view of the small number of its gainfully employed members. It has already been observed that almost the whole of the mining industry is in foreign hands. One must of course distinguish between foreigners and immigrants. Foreigners not normally resident in the country who invest money in its concerns cannot be classed as immigrants, nor can foreign executives and technicians who only live in Chile for a few years, and who do not wish to become Chilean

/citizens. If the

citizens. If the analysis is limited to real immigrants, then a rough idea of the numbers participating in economic activities in Chile may be gained from the study of Table 65. This shows that in 1936 the foreign residents, then about 2 per cent of the total population, owned approximately 20 per cent of the economic concerns of the country. The Spaniards owned the largest number, closely followed by the Italians; these two groups between them owned 10 per cent of all the concerns in existence.^{1/} These figures do not give an exact picture of the part played by immigrants, and neither do those of 1940, for which the data are incomplete. In fact they include an unknown number of foreigners who, as has been remarked, are not properly speaking immigrants; moreover, they exclude yet another uncounted group of immigrants who have acquired Chilean citizenship and are no longer listed as foreigners. Whereas the former group is relatively small, the latter is much larger, thus justifying the assumption that the personal participation of immigrants in economic activities actually reaches a higher level than appears from the statistics.

As regards financial participation, the total capital invested in Chile by foreigners amounts to 1,111.2 million dollars.^{2/} But here the part held by non-immigrant foreigners is very much greater than in the former case, and its exact amount is equally impossible to determine.

Although it is not possible to base statements on statistical data, since none are available, it is none the less well known that the part played by immigrants in economic activities is appreciably larger today than formerly and is on the increase. The textile industry, and those of clothing, printing, books, chemical and pharmaceutical products, glassware, window glass, ceramics, foodstuffs, furniture,

1/ "Industrial and Commercial Census of 1937" - Santiago 1939. ("Censo Industrial y Comercial de 1937").

2/ "Annual Report of the Directorate General of Culture and Information" Santiago, 1946. ("Anuario de la Dirección General de Informaciones y Cultura").

utensils, building, metallurgy and mechanics all owe a large part of their progress to the initiative of foreigners. The manufacture of plastics is due to them, and the same holds good as regards the application of modern methods to fishing and allied industries. As for non-productive work, immigrants have modernized and perfected methods of retail trade and those of the hotel business and similar trades.

In conclusion, the history of immigration in Chile justifies the following statements: -

1) Chile has not been a country of mass immigration; the influx has always been thin in volume and often interrupted, and as a result immigrants have always represented only a small proportion of the total population.

2) Notwithstanding this, their cultural and economic influence has been of the highest importance, so that it can even be stated that immigration has played a leading part in the economic development of Chile, in any case vastly superior to that which its modest proportions might have led one to expect.

3) The greater part of the immigration has been free and spontaneous.

4) Planned immigrations, though few in number and small in volume, have been going on for a hundred years. They have all had happy results, both in the economic sphere and in their cultural, social and political aspects.

5) Immigration in Chile includes people from all over Europe and part of Asia. In recent times there have been large immigrations of Arabs and Central Europeans whose origins involve profound differences as regards language, culture and ways of life (and as regards their economic situation where the latter are concerned), when compared with those of the Chilean population. In spite of this, these immigrants have settled down quickly and successfully and have merged into the general population.

6) Despite the obstacles arising from the immaturity of its economy, the system of land tenure, and the low standard of living, Chile possesses qualitatively a remarkable gift for welcoming foreigners and an outstanding ability to absorb immigrations, provided that their volume does not exceed the capacity of the economic structure of the country.

III. IMMIGRATION LEGISLATION AND POLICY

1. HISTORICAL SURVEY

In the preceding chapter mention was made of some of the decisions taken by the Chilean Government with regard to the encouragement of immigration. It was seen that the Supreme Head of the State, Don Bernardo O'Higgins, was already weighing the advantages of a European immigration without distinction of creeds, when Chile had only just become an independent nation.

Legislation to promote immigration was formally initiated by the law promulgated on the 10th April 1824 by Don Fernando Errázuriz, Acting Head of the State; this law enabled such foreigners as would establish factories for ropes and rigging made of hemp, for linen thread, for melted copper and other products, to receive the grant of the land occupied by the factories, and to be provisionally exempt from taxes on both the land and the goods they manufactured, as well as from military service and municipal duties. The same law authorised the Government to grant land and to make tax exemptions at their discretion to as many foreigners as wished to engage in agriculture.

The events of the period caused the law to be ineffective and twenty years were to elapse before the Chilean Government, having set the country in order, was to think any further on the subject of immigrations. It was during the first presidency of Don Manuel Bulnes that Señor Cavareda, intendant of the province of Valdivia, presented a report to the Government in which he depicted the backward and apathetic state of the territory under his care. He suggested as a remedy that new settlers should be attracted to the district. Don Manuel Montt, who was at that time Minister of the Interior, paid attention to the report, and the forgotten project of inviting foreign immigration to stimulate the economic life of the country was revived accordingly.

On the 18th November, 1845, a law was promulgated by Bulnes and Montt, the chief provisions of which consisted in the establishment of agricultural settlements all over the country, to be formed of both native and foreign farmers; every father of a family who joined such a settlement between the river of Copiapó and Bio-Bio was to be given 8 hectares of land belonging

/to the State,

to the State, plus four more hectares for every child over 14; if the settlements were to be to the north of the Copiapó or South of the Bío-Bío, the grants would rise to 25 hectares per head of a family, plus two hectares for every child over 10. We already know that tracts of land definitely belonging to the State were few in number, badly demarcated, of inferior quality and unprofitably situated. ^{1/} The State of society as a whole was not in those days conducive towards energetic action in reclaiming portions of land filched from the Government, or taken without any claim being made good. It is to this state of affairs that the small number of settlers who took advantage of the law of 1845 and of subsequent provisions may be attributed.

In 1851, during the presidency of Don Manuel Montt, another law increased the powers of the Head of the State for the granting of state-owned land to both Chilean and foreign settlers.

On the 15th April 1872, the National Society for Agriculture, which was composed of the largest landowners of the country, was given by decree the title of "General Immigration Office", with facilities for the investigation of such matters and with the specific task of encouraging agricultural immigrants. Ten years later (the decree of the 10th October, 1882) the post of "General Agent for European Colonization" was created, with the task of recruiting immigrant labourers from there; and the next year (29th March) another decree established the post of "Inspector-General of Colonization" for the reception and settlement of the colonists on the tracts of land selected for that purpose. In view of the difficulty of finding enough land for such settlements, the law of December 1886 was passed during the presidency of Don José Manuel Balmaceda, authorizing the President of the Republic to decree the compulsory expropriation of land for the purpose of settling the colonists, adequate compensation being offered. But the course of events made the effective application of this law impracticable.

The colonizing and immigration movements which had continued in a steady if very thin stream for half a century, diminished after the

^{1/} See page 48 and Memoirs, op cit.

civil war of 1891. In order to renew its flow, the by-law of the 15th October, 1895 was passed, offering reduced second and first class fares to immigrants with official contracts, and free rail transport to their destination; then on September 1st 1899, came the decree ordering that the colonists already settled to the south of the Bio-Bio river who worked their land personally for a period of 5 years (soon reduced to 3 by the decree of October 12th, 1908), would be granted 40 hectares of fiscal territory and 10 hectares more for every child under 12. In order to qualify for these offers, the settlers were not allowed to leave home for more than four months out of the twelve without permission from authorities competent to give it, nor to transfer, nor to promise the future transfer of any part of the property which had been granted them by the State.

The declining rate of immigration inspired the decree of the 13th July, 1903, whereby the privileges granted to selected immigrants were extended to those who had come of their own free will, since the law had come into operation, and who were willing to help in the colonization of Chilean territory; it was in fact sufficient for them to ask for these privileges before they had been in the country a year.

The desire to emigrate was at that time fairly strong in Europe, and the Chilean Government promulgated measures designed to attract some of the new emigrants. The by-law of the 24th June, 1905, created immigration agencies in Geneva and Hamburg (for the post of agent-general, created in 1882, was no longer in existence), and ordered them to send to Chile the immigrants they themselves selected, together with others who had arranged their journey directly with the Inspectorate-General of Land and Colonization through the good offices of relatives or friends resident in the country. Would-be immigrants were to be in good health and of good character, and had to exercise some profession or trade; the Chilean Government, for its part, offered them the following privileges in addition to those already offered in previous legislation, and applicable to those who wished to settle on the land; cheap third class passages, and cheap second class ones for those who were master workmen, foremen, or heads of industrial or mining concerns; free lodging and maintenance in the Hostel for Immigrants at Talcahuano for the first week, and longer in case of sickness; free third class rail travel for
/all immigrants from

all immigrants from the port of disembarkation to their future home; and in the case of those who were specialists in a trade, their machinery and equipment were also transported free of charge.

The by-law of the 25th September of 1907 re-established the General Agency for Immigration in Europe, and the decree of the 14th October in the same year ordered the re-organisation of the old Inspectorate-General of Immigration, which now became the "Inspectorate-General of Colonization and Immigration"; this decree also contained provisions regulating the settling of immigrants on the land, and arranging for technical and legal advice of immigrants who did not settle on the land, as regards the economic development of the country, and as regards the contracts signed with their employers.

All these provisions were new in that they took into account immigration of a technical and industrial nature as well as agricultural immigration, which had hitherto been the sole concern of all legislation on the subject.

The First World War disrupted the whole process of immigration. Until 1925 the Chilean Government did not pass any further laws regarding it. In that year the decree-law No. 6601 created the Directorate-General of Land, Colonization and Immigration within the Ministry of Agriculture, Industry and Colonization; the principal task of this new body consisted in the surveying and distribution of Government land and in the authorization of free concessions to Chilean and foreign settlers within the limits prescribed by law.

Up to this point, Chilean legislation had been exceedingly generous; not only had there been no restrictions on voluntary immigration, with equal privileges for both Chileans and foreigners, but it had tended to promote the maximum flow of immigrants, both voluntary and selected.

But in the fourth decade of this century the period of restricted immigration began in Chile. There were two reasons for the change, one economic and the other political. At that time Chile was suffering under the stress of the world economic depression, the repercussions of which took so very violent a form in that country; it was feared, moreover, that the influx of foreigners would make even more acute the economic and
/social struggles

social struggles already in progress. Further, the last World War has revived a distrustful type of patriotism in the policy of every country of the world, although the long period of peace that had preceded it, with its economic and cultural progress, had allowed such emotions to die. These two factors together determined the new attitude of the Chilean Government towards immigration legislation. Subsequently the rapid growth of the native population, and the social and political tension due to the difficulties implicit in a period of transition towards an industrialized economy, and also to the course of world events, have tended to strengthen this attitude towards legislation; it is based on the principle that a general and unlimited immigration is not desirable, but only immigration of a restricted, selected and carefully regulated variety.

The law regarding private employees which was promulgated in 1924 and modified in 1925, altered the Chilean legal tradition of general economic and civil equality between Chileans and foreigners, to the extent of fixing maximum quotas of foreign employees that each employer might take on contract; but it was really the law of the 20th June, 1930, and the decree No. 256 of the 20th May, 1931, which had the force of a law, that initiated the new policy. Both regulations established differences in the granting of land to Chilean and foreign settlers, and further stipulated that, generally speaking, land could only be granted to native born Chileans and to naturalized foreigners; it was only to be in special circumstances, to be considered by the President of the Republic that land for settlers might be granted to non-naturalized immigrants; and in such a case the land thus granted had to be more than 10 kilometres from the country's frontiers. Further, laws No. 4855 and No. 6035 of the 20th June 1930, and the 16th February 1937 respectively (it is the former that has already been quoted), which have now been modified, and the by-law of April 10th of last year (decree No. 311), all of which deal with the colonization of the province of Aysen in the extreme south of the country, only mention as possible settlers native-born and naturalized foreigners and make no reference whatever to immigrants who have not been naturalized. The aforesaid laws authorize Chileans, whether native-born or naturalized to possess up to 600 hectares of public land and another 50 for each child, /once they are

once they are settled in Aysen and have cultivated land there for at least a year; the same concession also applies to Chileans who have been living in the Argentine Republic but wish to return to Chile. If they have discharged civic duties in the said province for at least a year, the amount may be increased to 1,000 hectares for native-born and naturalized Chileans alike, as long as they possess money, livestock or household chattels worth 20 per cent of the land to be granted to them.

Law No. 5604 of the 15th February 1935, order the establishment of the Department of Agricultural Colonization, with the task of settling colonists on public land or on private property acquired by means of direct purchase, public auction or enforced expropriation. The grants were not to be less than 4 hectares of irrigated land and 20 of non-irrigated land, nor to exceed 100 and 1,000 hectares in each case respectively. Where irrigated land was concerned there were definite scales of maximum and minimum area, within the prescribed limits, according to the district; the value of the grants was not to exceed 50,000 pesos (sometimes up to 100,000 in special cases), including the house, which must not be worth more than 12,500 pesos. The holdings were to be sold at cost price and might be paid for in annual installments over a period of years fixed by the Council of the Institution. An interest of 4 per cent was to accrue annually on the balance owed. Payments would become due after the second year of cultivation, or after the fourth in the case of holdings containing industrial plants. Title-deeds are authorized when 10 per cent of the total price has been paid, or 5 per cent in the case of holdings in the provinces of Tarapacá and Antofagasta or to the south of the Bío-Bío. Every holder of title-deeds may acquire a holding for himself and another for every three children actually living with him. Once the whole sum is paid off, the holdings become transferable. But the benefits under this law are only to be granted to native-born Chileans, or to naturalized Chileans who have lived in the country for over 10 years or who, if they are widowers or bachelors, are maintaining a family at their own expense.

No further legislation was passed regarding immigration until 1945. In that year a Co-ordinating Commission was formed and given the task of formulating a plan for immigration. The Commission produced a report of
/their findings

their findings and proposals for legislation, but without any results. Finally, by the decree No. 3652 of the 18th June 1948, the Permanent Commission for Immigration was established and is in operation today.

To sum up, it may be stated:

that public authorities in Chile have always given a place to immigration among their many other concerns;

that there is a tradition as regards policy and legislation on the subject, which has tended to stimulate immigration in general, especially when European in origin, and in particular the migration of agricultural settlers with a view to the colonization of sparsely populated districts, and also of industrial technicians.

Since 1930 both legislation and policy have shown a tendency to limit immigration to selected groups, chiefly according to their technical ability as regards agriculture and even more as regards industry in Chile.

2. EXISTING LEGISLATION PLANS FOR REFORM

For the purposes of the present work, the analysis of the legislation in force may be divided into two parts: the one consists in studying the legal provisions that go to make up policy in general regarding foreigners in Chile; the other consists in examining the effect on immigration of the legislative acts that concern colonization and the development of industry. This latter task also presents two aspects, namely, the preceptive aspect (laws, decrees and by-laws) and the practical and functional aspect (bodies concerned with the application of the former).

The policy regarding foreigners in Chile is similar to that which normally operates in all democratic countries today (see Appendix I). Chilean laws are based on international principles of the rights of man, and guarantee the essential freedoms to foreigners, without any obsolete restrictions which might place unjustifiable difficulties in the way of the full exercise of their civil rights, especially as regards owning property and taking part in economic activities on equal terms with Chileans. According to the Constitutional Charter of Fundamental Rights, constitutional guarantees are applicable to all the inhabitants of the Republic. In most cases foreigners who have fulfilled the necessary conditions can claim the assistance of the State in technical and Economic matters whenever possible

/(such as legal

(such as legal advice, loans, etc.), again on equal terms with Chileans; the same applies to the various public services, such as those concerning education, health and social welfare.

There is no limit fixed by Chilean Law to the amount of real estate a foreigner may possess, neither as regards the sum total of it, nor as regards the size of each farm. Nor are there any legal restrictions especially devised to prevent immigrants from remitting funds abroad. The amount thus remitted cannot be calculated for lack of data. Estimates of such sums have appeared in the annual foreign exchange budgets varying from half a million to one and a half million dollars; but these calculations are purely theoretical, since most of those who remit money abroad do not apply for dollars officially, nor indeed for the other types of currency which they need for their transactions.

Further, Chilean Law gives foreigners who have lived in the country for more than five consecutive years the right to vote for town councillors.

The laws in force regarding the organization of colonization are: the decree (with the force of a law) No. 256; decree No. 311, with the same authority, and Law No. 5604, which regulates the functions of the Department of Agricultural Colonization and of which the provisions have been discussed in preceding pages. Where immigration is concerned, this system consistently presents the following obstacle: the opportunities it offers are not available to foreigners except in special cases decided upon on individual merits by the President of the Republic, and authorization which has little power to modify the exclusive character of the provisions of the law whereby the Department of Agricultural Colonization has been constituted.

There are altogether nine institutions in Chile dealing with the development of industry, each of which is independent as regards administration; these are:

- The Corporation for the Promotion of Production
- The Department of Mining Credit
- The Department of Mining Credit of Tarapacá
- The Department of Mining Credit of Antofagasta
- The Department of Housing for the People
- The Department of Cheap Housing

/The Institute

The Institute of Industrial Credit
Mining and Industrial Institute of Tarapacá
Mining and Industrial Institute of Antofagasta.

The Corporation for the Promotion of Production is in many respects the most important of these institutions: it initiates projects and gives technical and financial assistance on a large scale and in all branches of economic activity. The Department of Housing for the People puts up groups of houses for workmen which become their own property in due course after paying amortization and interest over a period of years; loans are also made with a similar object in view. The Mining and Industrial Institutes of Tarapacá and Antofagasta assist both directly and indirectly in the development of fisheries. The others really act simply as organization for the advancing of credit.

The Corporation for the Promotion of Production and the Department of Housing offer advantages to Chileans and foreigners alike. The mining organizations insist that the latter shall have lived at least five years in the country, or have children of Chilean nationality, before they will extend any benefits to them. The Institute of Industrial Credit and the Mining and Industrial Institute make similar conditions and in addition the foreigner must have invested 60 per cent of his capital in Chile.

Where the practical and functional aspect is concerned, immigration in Chile depends on the following government departments:

Permanent Immigration Commission
Ministry of Foreign Affairs
Ministry of the Interior
Ministry of Labour
Ministry of Land and Colonization
Department of Agricultural Colonization

In order that the way the system functions may be understood, it is best to describe the four most typical cases that arise in the process of immigration. This may be voluntary, or it may be planned. If the former, it may take two forms, which correspond to the first two of the cases under reference:

First case: A foreigner, not resident in Chile, wishes to emigrate to
/that country.

that country. He has to go to the Chilean Consul, who will give him the necessary forms to complete: these will then be forwarded to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and thence to the Permanent Immigration Commission, who sends its recommendations to the Minister of the Interior with whom the decision rests.

Second case: A person resident in Chile wishes to ask that friends or relations living abroad may come to Chile. He goes to the Permanent Immigration Commission, to whom he must present the necessary papers: the Commission then asks the Ministry of the Interior for a report on the conduct and reputation of the petitioner already settled in Chile. The Commission will then propose the authorization or refusal of the entry of the foreigner or foreigners in question, and if the decision of the Minister of the Interior was favourable, the proceedings are carried on by means of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

In the case of planned immigration, the process may develop in two other ways.

Third case: The Permanent Immigration Commission may, either on its own initiative or as a result of suggestions from outside, consider it desirable to arrange a collective immigration according to a certain plan; in that case it puts forward proposals to the President of the Republic; if he agrees, the decision and its "modus operandi" become the business of the Government.

Fourth case: The Government may itself decide that an immigration of the type under reference is desirable; in such a case the Permanent Commission confines itself to pronouncing judgement if asked to do so.

The Ministry of Labour plays a part by means of its Inspectorate-General in arranging for the reception and employment of planned immigrations not intended to settle on the land. There is in existence an employment bureau (Employment Exchange) which helps both Chilean and immigrant unemployed to find work.

The Ministry of Land and Colonization and the Department of Agricultural Colonization are the departments specially concerned with making proposals to the President of the Republic for planned immigrations destined to settle on the land, and to arrange them in detail.

/The need for

The need for the reform of the present immigration legislation as regards policy and practical methods has been felt for a long time. As has been explained in the foregoing pages, the Co-ordinating Commission for Immigration which was created in 1945 but no longer exists, did make proposals for legislative reform, designed particularly to remove the discriminations made against naturalized Chileans and foreign immigrants where colonization was concerned; but the proposals of this commission did not prosper.

On the other hand, in the same year the Executive presented to Congress a projected Immigration Law. It consisted of 5 provisions. The first specified the requirements that a foreigner must fulfill in order to be allowed into the country, and classified the foreigners already there into two groups, immigrants and visitors, the former being defined as "persons of foreign nationality who come to the country with the intention of settling there". The second provision regulated the process of colonizing by means of immigrants, giving preference to those employed in forestry, stock-breeding and fishing; it authorized the President of the Republic to grant public land to the settlers, either free or in return for payment; settlers were bound to promise to live in the country for at least ten consecutive years, but they were to be exempt from taxation during that period. The subsequent provisions contained regulations for the application of the above proposals. This project was not discussed by Congress, was not considered by subsequent governments and in fact can be considered as having lapsed completely.

In 1948, the Ministry of Economics and Commerce prepared a preliminary scheme for an Immigration Law. This also consisted of 5 provisions, in which immigration was defined and provided for according to a broad division into "free immigration" and "controlled immigration"; the Permanent Commission for Immigration was established, and the sources from which funds might be obtained to finance immigration and colonization plans were indicated. This project gave the President of the Republic power to grant public land with the object of installing immigrant settlers, and expressly removed the existing legal restrictions which have already been described in detail; it limited to 5,000 hectares the amount of land to be granted
/to each settler;

to each settler; and reserved 25 per cent of the total land available for Chilean settlers; all settlers were to be exempt from taxation for five years; all settlers were to refund, free of interest, the sums spent on their original journey and on their installation, by means of annual payments of not less than 10 per cent of the debt, to be paid only after a period of five years. Settlers were also obliged to refund to the Government the sums spent on the "construction of roads and footpaths, bridges, boundaries, division of land, felling of trees and all undertakings in the interests of progress on their holdings, so that their development may be more profitable"; and other sums too that had been given by the Government for building a house, acquiring machinery, farm equipment, seed and livestock, but not for four years after arrival, at 1 per cent amortization and 4 per cent yearly interest. Finally, settlers were forbidden to mortgage their land, or to transfer it for five years after an agreement had been signed arranging its transfer. This projected law has been considered deficient by the competent authorities and it did not come into force; up to the time of writing no other law has taken its place. At present, therefore, there are in fact no plans in existence for the reform of current legislation. The Executive has confined itself to taking out the fourth provision whereby the Permanent Commission for Immigration was to be established, and converting it into a law by means of a decree, as has already been explained. The powers conferred on this organization are purely advisory and of a rather negative character, such as the over-zealous supervision of foreigners entering the country, the cancellation of residence permits on account of undesirable activities, and the forwarding of petitions to immigrate.

To sum up:

Legislation in Chile regarding foreigners is, according to the normal standards of international law;

there is no legislation regarding immigration as such, and the laws governing colonization are full of restrictions where colonization by immigrants is concerned;

there is no working system of organizations responsible for the development of immigration and for the execution of plans for controlled
/immigration.

immigration.

In practice, the existing laws are applied generously as regards foreigners and immigrants.

3. OPINIONS ON IMMIGRATION: GOVERNMENT POLICY

Generally speaking, opinions current in Chile today on the immigration problem are similar to those described by Vicente Pérez Rosales in the last century. ^{1/}

Certain sections of the community see in immigration the remedy for the economic, social and even political limitations affecting the country today, and are of the opinion that a large-scale immigration could easily increase the population of Chile to double or even three times its present size and thus provide vigorous incentives towards the development of the country's economy, culture and international importance. The members of this group include those who see in immigration a source of plentiful, competent and cheap manual labour.

Other sections of the community view immigration as unnecessary and even dangerous. They think that the rapid increase of the Chilean population, which may be expected to continue indefinitely, necessitates the preservation of the country's resources in order to provide maintenance and employment for the surplus population. They fear lest immigration should make economic competition more acute, aggravate social disturbances, cheapen manual labour and prejudice the position of Chilean technicians, employees and workmen as competitors. Finally, they are afraid lest an excessive number of immigrants should alter the spirit of the country, disturb its political and social methods and constitute a danger to the stability of the Government and to national security.

Other sections who have studied questions related to the idea of immigration are inclined to favour a limited and selective immigration by means of the most careful possible planning, with a view towards the development of the economic pattern of the country and of its culture by dint of settling in Chile immigrants with suitable technical qualifications.

Government policy may be taken as being defined in Article 1 of the Supreme Decree No. 3652 of the 18th June 1948, whereby, as had been

^{1/} Memoirs, op. cit.

/explained,

explained, the Permanent Commission for Immigration was established, It runs as follows:

Article 1 - "A Permanent Commission for Immigration is to be constituted... with the duty of advising the Government in all those matters that relate to the application of an immigration policy that would increase the productive and technical capacity of the country, and would maintain and ensure the homogeneity of the nation by means of the incorporation of a human element capable of adaptation and rapid assimilation, avoiding the entry of undesirable or unadaptable individuals."

This text shows a twofold intention: one consists in a desire to promote the technical and economic progress of the country by means of the contributions of immigrants of superior training in production, and the other in the preserving of security and order within the country and of ensuring that it will continue to evolve along traditional lines. It is in fact a continuation of the same policy as was initiated in 1930, with a preference for restricted, selective, planned and controlled immigration. The convention signed between the Chilean Government and the International Refugee Organization is in point of fact an expression of this very policy.

Where practical application is concerned, the Government does not at the present time possess complete executive and functional machinery, in view of obvious difficulties due principally to a lack of funds.

IV. MASS IMMIGRATION

1. GENERAL CONDITIONS

The background analysis which has so far been presented in the course of the present work appears to bear out the following deductions:

Chile's economic pattern, even when it exhibits some new aspect of a relatively progressive type in the course of its general development, has not reached a sufficient degree of maturity; as a result, it finds itself in the category of countries with so-called "under-developed economies", and therefore requires incentives and contributions, in particular those that would enrich its technical capacity and stimulate production.

Immigration has played a constant part in the economic development of Chile: its most characteristic and successful features have been precisely those of widening the scope of technical knowledge and of imparting greater diversity and energy to productive activities.

It seems only reasonable to infer that the continuance of this process would result in the same valuable assistance now as it has rendered up to the present: in a word, that Chile is still in need of immigration in order to develop satisfactorily its economy.

It remains to discuss the type of immigration that would be most suitable to the satisfactory progress of Chile's economy. First, it might be a general immigration of relatively large size, the effects of which, besides involving overall progress in technical training and in joint production, would also result in an appreciable increase in population. Or it might be a specialised and limited immigration, composed of immigrants with selected professions and abilities; the volume of such an immigration would not appreciably alter the demographic composition of the country. The former type may be called mass immigration, and the latter, selective immigration.

It has already been shown that mass immigrations have played no part in Chile's history. It is now necessary to consider whether the present time affords more propitious circumstances than did the past.

/The countries

The countries of Europe have provided the principal and most valuable source of immigration into Latin America, on account of their historical traditions, their geographical proximity, the affinity of their culture, the ease with which their inhabitants can assimilate themselves, and the superiority of their technical contributions. It is unnecessary to describe how tremendously Europe has assisted the New World in its economic and cultural development, thanks to the large-scale immigration that took place during the hundred years between the end of the Napoleonic Wars and the beginning of the First World War. Latin America has played its part by arranging for the reception of these streams of immigrants on a considerable scale, especially certain Latin American countries such as the Argentine Republic and Brazil.

Similar movements of population have been made possible on account of definite historical circumstances, manifested on the one hand by the mother-countries and on the other by those that received them. The former had been urged by a migratory impulse towards both demographic and economic abundance; the bulk of Europe's population was going through a phase of maximum increase, and at the same time wealth-producing activities had reached their peak, as a result of the development and effects of the industrial revolution. The countries that received the immigrants offered for their part, ample accommodation, consisting chiefly in unoccupied land of which it was easy to gain possession, and the development of which was profitable. Thus was produced the well-known voluntary immigration which has transformed, sometimes even fundamentally, the course of events in the economic and social development of the New World. It should be borne in mind that this movement was accompanied by an equally large transfer of capital, part of which was brought in by the immigrants themselves, and part produced by direct investments by European capitalists; this capital played a part that cannot be over-estimated in making immigration possible in the first place, and in enabling it to merge itself into the new countries and there to bear

/fruit. Circumstances

fruit.

Circumstances today are altogether changed. The demographic and economic boom has come to an end in Europe, most European countries having reached the point when a population begins gradually to lose its reproductive impulse and tends to decrease, and as regards the economy of Europe, not only is the huge surplus capital of past generations lacking - capital which sought investments overseas and enabled a large-scale emigration to finance itself - but now investments are invited from foreign sources. At the other end of the scale, the countries receiving immigrants no longer offer the large tracts of land necessary for the reception of large immigrations. Such land, oddly enough, although by no means fully exploited as yet, is encircled by private property which prevents access to it on a sufficient scale. Other changes emphasize the difference in circumstances. In former times, government policy favoured large and unlimited migratory movements both in the mother-countries and in those receiving the immigrants, whereas today it is in both cases cautious and selective; generally speaking, the former countries do not wish to lose a great number of qualified persons with technical ability and of productive demographic and economic value; the latter do not wish to admit indiscriminately large numbers of foreigners whose influx might give rise to social or political problems of a magnitude corresponding to the size of the immigration group. Lastly, the desire to emigrate from Europe today is due, not so much to demographic and economic reasons of compelling validity and to a vast and deep-seated tendency towards evolutionary expansion, as to the recent world war, and except in isolated and definite cases, it seems to be of a fortuitous and insecure character.

In short, although a large migration from Europe to America at the present time is possible in theory, the actual situation, depending chiefly on the economic and financial position in both continents and on the opinions of the governments involved, does not at present offer favourable

/conditions for

conditions for the transfer of large numbers of persons from one continent to the other; especially must it be borne in mind that all large-scale transfers of population are inevitably attended by a corresponding transfer of capital, whether as funds or in the form of equipment, which it would be practically impossible to substitute or compensate for to an equivalent extent by means of Government action.

2. SPECIAL CONDITIONS PREVAILING IN THE COUNTRY

The conditions peculiar to the country merely serve to confirm previous deductions. A relatively large immigration would necessitate one or both of the following situations:

First, the possibility of large-scale settlement on the land. It has already been remarked that Chile has no "agricultural barrier". If we consider the relation between the suitable land and the area actually occupied, we can see that both areas coincide over the entire country.^{1/} This is particularly the case in the central zone (the Central, Southern Central and Southern regions), which comprises the greater part of the agricultural resources of the nation. Outside this zone we find that agricultural land, whether at present or only potentially valuable, is definitely scarce; and its cultivation is limited by climatic and soil conditions, and by the need for large-scale and expansive operations in the first instance. For example, the Northern Zone (i.e. the Greater Northern and the Lesser Northern Zones) could not offer any scope for colonization on a large scale unless extensive irrigation schemes were first to be carried out and completed, schemes which would involve extremely heavy expenditure. Nor does the extreme South offer opportunities for colonization to any appreciable extent, unless a network of roads were first to be constructed, woods cleared, new ground broken up, and the clearance and drainage of land undertaken, all of which operations could only be effected at considerable cost. Further, the tilling of the land is greatly circumscribed by climatic and soil conditions, so that intensive cultivation, with its attendant sub-division of land, would only be possible on a small scale. It is well known that a colonization scheme which fails

^{1/} Reinaldo Wilhelm: *El ocúmeno agrícola*, Santiago 1949.
(Not published)

to offer the settler the prospect of at least partly owning the land he cultivates does not afford sufficient inducement definitely to attract immigrants. It would in addition be necessary to set up, under a proper scheme of distribution, houses containing essential sanitary conveniences. All types of colonization on any appreciable scale in districts where the land available is not entirely occupied must necessarily imply a vast scheme of public works, the cost of which is beyond the economic resources of the country at the present time.

The system of land tenure, moreover, presents further obstacles to any moderately large-scale type of immigration. It is only in the extreme South that the Government possesses large areas of landed property. In the rest of the country, the method of distribution already described in the present work prevails, so that landed property available for settlers only exists in the zone under reference.

Any colonization of moderate size in parts of the north and central zones would necessitate the acquisition or expropriation of a proportionate area of land suitable for settlers. Further, the inevitable expense involved in the expropriation of areas of any appreciable size would give rise to political and social problems that may easily be imagined, and still more so if the land expropriated at so high a cost were then to be handed over to foreign settlers.

Lastly, all large-scale colonization by immigrants would require the previous radical reform of current civil and financial legislation on the subject, including the objects of public expenditure and the executive system responsible for the carrying out of the project. This would have profound repercussions on the whole machinery of government and would signify a fundamental change of policy and a disturbance of the whole social structure.

One final consideration still further reduces the possibility of a large-scale immigration for purposes of land settlement at the present time. In the relevant section of the present work it has been pointed out that in Chile certain aspects of the social system prevailing in the

country demand preferential attention, if the economic progress of the nation is to be accelerated and the general standard of living raised. The penurious condition of important centres of rural population, apart from the moral problem it presents, forms an undoubted obstacle to the nation's prosperity. It therefore appears imperative that the main share of the land in any settlement scheme that might seem practicable should go to the members of these social groups.

The territory of Chile does not therefore offer any scope for large-scale immigration. The agricultural progress of Chile and the colonization of unpopulated areas is primarily the concern of the Chileans themselves, by dint of constant and steady effort under expert direction, to which immigration can only be called upon to provide a stimulus.

The second essential condition for attracting and profitably settling a mass immigration lies in the development of industry up to the point when it could usefully absorb a large number of immigrants.

In the relevant chapter the general picture of industrial development in Chile has already been described. Although industrialization has made very rapid and valuable progress, its speed and scope are notwithstanding inadequate to offer a pretext for a large-scale foreign immigration. Apart from the problems inherent in all industrialization, the completion of which is subject to a relatively slow and only gradually increasing rate, there are circumstances peculiar to such countries as Chile which add yet other obstacles of considerable importance. We already know that the development of Chilean industry suffers particularly from the shortage of capital and of markets; these are obstacles that can only be overcome over a long period, since they mainly depend on a higher degree of saving, and on a more even distribution of the national income; that is, they depend on evolutionary changes in the social structure of the country. Now immigration pure and simple involves in particular the contribution of manpower and of technical knowledge, which factors can only make themselves felt fully if there is capital, and if markets are adequate. Further, there is no shortage of manpower in Chile;

/it is only a

it is only a question of transferring the population which is not productively employed, i.e., working in activities of no economic value or low productivity, to productive occupations. Any numerically large influx of foreign workers would be difficult to absorb in industry unless accompanied by corresponding increases in financial resources and in the consuming power of the public, and would soon necessitate extremely troublesome readjustments, both social and economic.

The standard of living in the country as manifested in the scale of emoluments in relation to prices, presents an obstacle equally formidable, to say nothing of the distribution of goods and services in comparison with the number of inhabitants. Since these factors are not susceptible to sudden change, the influx of a fairly large number of persons would be bound to create considerable disturbances. The situation would be aggravated by the urban character of the immigrants, who would be mainly industrial workers, and by the concentration of Chilean industry in districts of restricted area; these circumstances would increase the tendency to congregate in the large towns which has already become deep-seated in the Chilean people.

The problem of the shortage of housing, and more particularly of hygienic housing, would become extremely acute. As a result of all these considerations, any relatively large-scale immigration would, on the assumption that it were feasible in the first place, tend to leave the country again without having served any useful purpose, and having created anxieties and problems of considerable gravity.

It may be inferred from this brief study that Chile no longer offers today the profitable opportunities for mass immigration that it offered in the past.

V. SELECTIVE IMMIGRATION

1. FEASIBILITY AND AIMS

A. Feasibility. If a large-scale immigration does not appear either advisable or practicable, there remains the possibility of an immigration in accordance with the probable sources thereof and with the country's ability to receive it, selected so that the technical contributions of the immigrants correspond to the most urgent necessities of the economy of the country.

It would be beyond the scope of this work, which is only in a preliminary stage, to study the problem of sources in detail. But it may nevertheless be stated that the original suppliers of immigrants to Chile can still supply them in numbers equal to those of the past. It has been observed that Chile's receptive capacity, though small in quantity on account of the limitations imposed on it by the economic pattern and the social structure of the country, is first-class in quality; and it has been proved by recent experience that a limited and selective immigration can be rapidly and profitably incorporated into the economic pattern and urban life of the nation.

The potential possibility of a selective immigration is beyond all reasonable doubt, as indeed is its desirability. In effect, the foregoing pages have gone to prove the following facts:

First: the lack of technical knowledge among the gainfully-employed population is one of the most outstanding obstacles to Chile's economic progress. The survival of outdated methods is one of the main problems that hamper the development of agriculture, and one of the fundamental requisites for agricultural progress consists in the technical and cultural training of farm-workers. The industry suffers from a shortage of competent personnel, whether among supervisors or among skilled workmen. Technical training is very far from producing the number of specialists required for the progress of economic activities. The vast majority of
/the population

the population receives no training other than that provided by routine work in outdated concerns, and there are far too many young people who so far lack even the most rudimentary apprenticeship. Such technical and educational difficulties as these are largely responsible for the low productivity of the gainfully-employed population, which in its turn constitutes a serious obstacle to economic development.

Second: A moderate-sized immigration, whether voluntary or selective, has always acted in Chile as a stimulus to economic and cultural progress. The history of the agricultural, and more particularly of the industrial development of Chile shows, as do so many other milestones, the extent of the active and technical contributions of immigrants.

As a result, immigration can and should continue to play the same part as in the past, and it can and ought to do so under planned and directed guidance so as to be the more efficient. It remains to explain:

- a) the concrete aims of a selective immigration;
- b) the qualities required of immigrants in order to achieve these aims;
- c) the methods of effecting a selective immigration.

B. Aims. We have already seen how agriculture in Chile is falling behind in comparison with the development of other economic activities, and even more so in comparison with the increase in population. One of the features of this decline is the impoverishment of the soil, due to mistaken methods of cultivation, with the resultant falling-off in crops, particularly noticeable in the harvesting of those essential for the adequate feeding of the working-class. Another proven defect is the antiquated system of the rotation of crops on arable soil, whereby very large areas are allowed to lie fallow: a quarter of the land under irrigation is turned into natural meadows, so that the land available for intensive cultivation is reduced to a minimum. Finally, attention has not yet been drawn to the /lack of industries

lack of industries derived from agriculture, and especially of local industries for the turning of various residues and substances of agricultural or animal origin to profitable use, thus supplying the agricultural worker personally, and increasing his income. Such deficiencies are of a technical nature; so that agriculture and its technical progress naturally form one of the difficulties in the way of all selective immigration. The latter would seem, on the face of it, capable of being directed towards three separate goals:

- a) towards a better development of crops for industrial purposes, such as sugar beet and oil seeds, a course of action which, apart from other advantages, would improve the rotation of crops now in use and prevent the impoverishment of the soil;
- b) towards the extension of intensive and specialized cultivation, such as horticulture and fruit-growing, including olives; the use of agricultural soil, especially irrigated soil, would thus be greatly improved, valuable elements would be added to the diet of the population and perhaps to the export trade, and the scope of secondary industries would be widened;
- c) towards the development of these industries, and in particular that of small local industries.

Such an enterprise would not, of course, be undertaken solely by means of immigrants. In accordance with its essential function of providing technical contributions, immigration would have to be limited to such duties as practical demonstration, extension services, and, in certain cases, the supply of necessary specialists. This pioneering mission would apply to immigrants where the gradual colonization of the extreme South was concerned, together with the exploitation of its timber resources. Lastly, fishing and allied industries still afford ample scope for a selective immigration.

The situation is equally favourable towards this type of immigration where industry is concerned. In addition to the proven

/necessity for

necessity for technicians and skilled workers in the development of industry, there is the effort being made by the Government towards greater industrialization which is apparent in various important projects, some of which are already in the course of execution. The mechanization of farming, which is one of the essential conditions for agricultural progress, tends to require the services of technicians for the repairing of tractors and harvesting machines. So will the sugar industry, based on the growing of sugar beet, in the course of its development. Other demands on specialist services, and therefore other opportunities for satisfying such demands by means of a selective and controlled immigration, arise from the increase of the timber industry, the manufacture of cellulose and of by-products through distillation, the working of such minerals as copper, zinc and lead, the development of mining substances other than metals, the first installation of a semi-heavy steel industry, and the increase of electric power already installed. Further, such undertakings would, in the course of their development over a long period, be the cause of a more diversified industrial pattern in Chile: metallurgy, mechanics, the chemical industry, the manufacture of electrical materials and equipment and of building materials would develop more fully and would need a greater number of specialists.

It is highly probable that such a development will take place more or less quickly in the normal course of the economic cycles independent of the difficult or prosperous periods that tend to alternate over a number of years. This is why it is important to foresee that the obvious value of the contribution of a selective and controlled immigration would be felt in Chile for many years, and should accompany the economic development of the country.

2. CLASSIFICATION AND NUMBERS OF SELECTED IMMIGRANTS REMUNERATION AND COSTS

A. Classification and numbers of immigrants.

The exact calculation of the possible size of a selective

/immigration, and its

immigration, and its technical classification, present an exceedingly complex problem beyond the scope of the present purely preliminary study. Such a calculation would necessitate, for instance, an examination of the possible sources of immigration; a thorough analysis of the situation regarding agriculture and stock-breeding throughout the country, tabulated according to districts and activities; a detailed study of technical requirements in each branch of industry, in relation with its probable future development, and an inventory of existing and short-term assets and shortages of a practical nature (establishments, emoluments, houses, etc.), for the reception of the immigrants and their immediate incorporation into productive activities.

These pages are only intended to give a general picture of the problem, as there is no scheme or concrete plan of action in existence in Government circles, and as no detailed replies whatsoever have been received to the questionnaire that was circulated. It has already been stated that the immigration now taking place, which is the result of conventions between the Chilean Government and the International Refugee Organization, has chiefly been inspired by humanitarian considerations and has taken place without regard to plans for economic progress.

The problem is more complicated where agriculture is concerned, on account of factors such as the system of land tenure and the value of land, together with the preliminary schemes in connection with barren ground and the dividing of land into lots, and for providing access to, and communications for, land suitable for settlement. There are in Chile fairly large tracts of land for settlement; apart from private property and areas which are being utilized for one purpose or another. The district of Batuco may serve as an example: it consists of 30.000 hectares of salt marsh and uncultivated ground near Santiago, and its habilitation, even if only on a small scale, would be of the greatest value in solving the problems and difficulties at present experienced in supplying /that large city

that large city with greenstuffs, vegetables, garden produce and fresh milk. ^{1/} Researches made by Señor Reinaldo Wilhelm and other specialists have drawn attention to a considerable number of potential resources of this type all over the country. Their development depends, however, on large-scale public works and relatively large capital investments; but the settlement of land already in use is subject to the acquisition of such territory by the Government or its dependent agencies.

The Caja de Colonización Agrícola (Department of Agricultural Colonization), which bears most of the responsibility for the above undertaking, has been carrying out the project almost exclusively by means of Chilean settlers. Since its establishment, it has created 82 settlements which have been entirely successful and comprise 420,748 hectares, which are distributed among 2,684 families. This land comes from the dividing up of large estates acquired by the Caja. The joint production of these settlements is remarkably in excess of what it was under the former owners, especially in fruit, milk and eggs.

The Caja has made three attempts at colonization with foreigners. In 1930 it created the settlement of Peñaflor, near Santiago, composed of 43 German families who had been selected and brought over by the Caja itself. But problems arising from the high costs of production, together with the attraction of the large city so close at hand, induced various settlers to transfer their holdings in order to devote themselves to mercantile and industrial activities. In spite of this the results were, according to the reports of the Caja, satisfactory on the whole. A year later the Caja created another settlement at Monte Aguile, composed of 12 families, German likewise;

^{1/} Statements of Don Carlos Valdovinos, President of the Asociación de Vecinos de Santiago: "El Mercurio", 29 January 1950.

the results of this second attempt were equally satisfactory. In 1940, as a last experiment, it settled 26 Jewish families on the Island of Chilc , but it was a complete failure and all the settlers left their holdings. After this the Caja made no further attempt either to settle immigrants or to plan schemes for such settlements.

The Caja works as follows:

Before establishing a settlement, it studies the conditions of the soil, the climate, irrigation, road engineering, markets, supplies, sanitation and educational facilities. It builds schools when necessary and arranges for the provision of essential police and security services. It also provides means of communication both inside and outside the settlement, and executes projects of irrigation and drainage. The expenditure involved is divided among the settlers in due proportion, as part of the cost of their holdings.

The Caja offers credit for the construction of houses and shops. Sometimes it takes charge of necessary building schemes, offering credit terms as has been said, or else it hands them over to the settlers themselves, offering only technical advice and reserving the right of approval.

In making concessions the Caja retains absolute control, each holding having to be paid for at cost price plus the share in general capital investment.

The Department also offers credit for the development of holdings, to be paid back over the following periods:

- a) credit for seeds, fertilisers and sacks - 2 years;
- b) for animals and farm implements - 5 years;
- c) for fences, machinery, fruit trees, chicken-runs, apiaries and other installations for domestic industries, together with desiccation, canalization, the uprooting of trees, and improvement of the soil - 10 years;
- d) for permanent improvements carried out under

/control of the

- control of the Caja - 15 years;
- e) for houses, also built under control - 20 years

The Caja also arranges loans to groups of settlers for the improvement of the settlement as a whole, over a term of years fixed by the Caja in each case.

All loans accumulate interest at the rate of 4 per cent.

Average prices per hectare vary from 1.000 pesos for non-irrigated land far from urban centres, and 60.000 pesos for irrigated land near large towns.

Lastly, the Caja organizes co-operative societies both wholesale and retail in its settlements, and advises the settlers on the sale of their commodities.

The Caja de Crédito Agrícola (Department of Agricultural Credit) offers, as has been observed, advantages to both Chileans and foreigners alike, offering loans for the development and improvement of land at 5 per cent annual interest; if payment is delayed, this rate is raised to 8 per cent, except in cases where delay is unavoidable. The Council of the Caja fixes the period for repayment in each individual case. Usually it is short. The Caja de Crédito Agrícola made 28,048 loans in 1948, amounting to 748,063,802.86 pesos, an average of 26,670 pesos apiece. By 31 December of this year these loans had amounted to 918,200,000 pesos. On the 30 November 1949 the number of the loans during the year came to 28,387, bringing the total amount up to 945,371,797.56 pesos, an average of 33,270 pesos apiece.

By way of example, or rather guide to the possibilities of a planned and limited immigration of farmers, it is useful to look at the scheme prepared by the agronomist, Don José Maige, professor of agronomy at the University of Chile. According to Professor Maige, 1,895,500 hectares are available for settlement, of which 212,500 are in the Northern Zone, 382,000 in the Central Zone, and 1,300,000 in the Southern Zone. The lands for colonization in the Northern and Central Zones, amounting to 594,500 hectares are clearly /defined in detail,

defined in detail, whereas those of the Southern Zone are somewhat vaguely described on account of the lack of adequate knowledge concerning the region. According to Professor Maige, the colonization of these lands would make it possible to settle 24,945 families there in the space of 10 years; 6,990 (i.e. from 25,000 to 30,000 persons) would be immigrants, representing 24 per cent of the whole. The Northern Zone could take 3,855 families (750 foreign families, i.e. 19 per cent), the Central Zone 17,250, (5,120 foreign families, i.e. 30 per cent), and the Southern Zone 3,840 (1,120 foreign families also amounting to 30 per cent); the immigrants would be specialist farmers and stock-breeders, and would come from countries with a climate and vegetation similar to that of the areas to be colonized; 120 families destined for the Southern Zone would be both farmers and fishermen. The scheme involves the following expenditure:

Acquisition of land	1,857,800,000 pesos
General Equipment of Settlements	1,681,850,000 pesos
Loans for development	<u>1,112,200,000 pesos</u>
Total	<u>4,651,850,000 pesos</u>

This would imply an expenditure of 186,500 pesos per family settled on the land, not counting the cost of transport to their homes. It is a distinctly moderate figure, and of course does not include the cost of public works essential to the scheme. These are important, for they would comprise the making of numerous fords and irrigation channels, a whole network of roads and railways, and an unspecified number of schools besides. However, Professor Maige's thesis provides a valuable indication of the scope offered by Chilean territory for a selective immigration of farmers and stock-breeders along the lines suggested in the present work. There is no doubt that the execution of projects of this type would form an important contribution to the agricultural and economic development of the country.

As for industry, it has been impossible to obtain similar data,
/and in view of

and in view of the impossibility of making an investigation of the detailed variety on which an approximate ruling must be based, it was necessary to have recourse to sampling methods. By means of correspondence and personal interviews, 297 answers were obtained from employers and officials belonging to relevant concerns and branches of the Civil Service and of industry in the most important cities of the country. ^{1/} The employers represented about 1 per cent of the registered factories of any importance. Table 66 sums up the result of these replies, of which both the general trend and the explicit contents went to show that not only could 654 families of immigrant specialists be absorbed immediately into Chilean industry, but that there are permanent indications that a constant flow of immigrant specialists into industry is both necessary and practicable, to an extent which would certainly exceed that of 654 families a year. In effect, the replies summed up in Table 66 refer solely to the immediate requirements of the aforesaid concerns, and take no account of either general requirements or of future developments. Some of these concerns gave as their particular requirements an "unspecified number" of the specialists who were lacking, and most were in agreement regarding the total lack of many types of technicians, such as certain kinds of mechanics and metallurgists (turners, smelters, millers, makers of models, boiler-makers, moulders) or else specialists in materials, glassware, by-products of wood,

1/ Officials and experts consulted were:

Señores Hector Grez, Under-Secretary of the Ministry of the Interior and President of the Permanent Commission on Immigration.

Dario Poblete, General Secretary of the Presidency of the Republic.

Luis Brucher, Under-Secretary of the Ministry of Land and Colonization.

Carlos del Rio, General Director of Land and Colonization,

Angel Aguilera, General Secretary of the Directorate-General of Land and Colonization.

/Señores Ramon Astorga,

1/ Footnote continued from preceding page:

Señores Ramón Astorga, Legal Advisor and ex-General Secretary to the Ministry of Land and Colonization.

Domingo Barros, Head of the Consular and Immigration Department of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

Carlos Herrera, Head of the Aliens Department of the Directorate-General of Passports and Identification.

Manuel Fredes, General Secretary of the Corporation for the Increase of Production.

Carlos de la Jara, Head of the Department for the Creation of Settlements, Department of Agricultural Colonization.

Professor José Maige, agronomical engineer, Professor of Agronomical Science at the University of Chile and ex-Director of the Department of Agricultural Colonization.

Dr. J.M. Vergara, member of the Permanent Commission on Immigration.

Señores Manuel Escobar, Councillor of the National Agricultural Society before the Permanent Commission on Agriculture.

Pedro Luis González, Councillor of the Society for Industrial Expansion before the Permanent Commission on Immigration,

Luis Cárcamo, General Director of the Directorate-General of Statistics.

Milton Lobell, ex-Head of the American Fisheries Mission, special adviser to the Corporation for the Increase of Production.

Gabriel Valdés, Head of the Personnel Department of the Pacific Steel Company.

Tomás Vila, Head of the Research and Planning Section of the Corporation for the Increase of Production.

Alejo Cozdava, Head of the Fisheries Section of the Corporation for the Increase of Production.

Ernesto Moller, agronomist, Head of the Sugar Beet Section of the Corporation for the Increase of Production.

Héctor Escribar, General Director of the Inspectorate - General of Labour.

Alfredo Larraín, Head of the Labour Social Service of the Presidency of the Republic.

Oscar Arellano, General Secretary of the Society for the Agricultural Development of Temuco.

chemicals, milk products, and in agriculture, stock-breeding and fisheries. Table 66 shows the branches of industry most in need of technical personnel in metallurgy and mechanics, the finishing of furniture, materials, glassware and window-panes, the electrical industry and shipbuilding. Fishing and the industries connected with it offer a particularly wide scope: all opinions agree in endorsing the assumption that fishing activities and industries offer immediate scope for prompt development that would bring large rewards; and official statements have established the fact that the arrival and settlement of large numbers of immigrants with experience in the fishing trade, who would like to live in the country, could be authorized and facilitated, as long as they brought with them their boats and fishing tackle, or else the economic resources for making the one and buying the other in the appropriate market. (See Appendix II).

Almost all the employers consulted agreed that a selective immigration would constitute one of the most suitable methods of increasing the country's industrial development: that the European workman is superior to the Chilean, not because the latter is incapable, but because the former is accustomed to work with modern machinery and with the most advanced technical methods within the framework of a more complete and efficient organization; that the European workman has a deeper sense of discipline and of responsibility for his work and for the finished product. And as the Chilean workman, whose powers of assimilation are remarkable, can learn very quickly, the contributions of immigration would be highly profitable for the country and for the Chilean working class. Some employers were also of the opinion that the European workman has certain habits of character, such as saving and an eagerness to improve, which would serve as a morally and materially beneficial example to the Chilean workman, whose tendency not to be concerned for the morrow is well-known.

The statements made on one occasion by the now dissolved

/Co-ordinating

Co-ordinating Commission for Immigration are thus confirmed, both by the general conclusions of Professor Maize in his attempt to estimate the capacity of Chilean agriculture to absorb immigrants, and also by the similar conclusions of the summary investigations we have carried out in industrial circles. In the proposals which the above-mentioned consultative body presented to the President of the Republic on the 15 September 1945, it was considered possible to settle 5,000 immigrant farmers and their families on Chilean territory, 2,000 of them almost at once; it was also considered useful and practicable to bring 2,300 immigrant specialists and their families into industry forthwith; and lastly, the formation of 31 fishing settlements was recommended, 4 in the Northern Zone, 10 in the Central and Southern Central Zones, 6 in the Southern and 11 in the extreme Southern Zone; this was to be done by means of 1,500 immigrant fishermen, at a cost of 27,475,000 pesos, not counting the expenses of the non-working members of each family, but including the acquisition or building of 50 boats and of 1,500 wooden houses, costing the modest sum of 18,316 pesos per person.

B. Emoluments

The remuneration offered to immigrants varies considerably between types of employment, between provinces and between employers. Salaries offered are naturally higher in the large industrial centres, diminishing towards the periphery. For instance, 400 pesos a day are paid in Santiago to a crystal cutter; in Valparaiso, a weaver earns from 7,000 to 8,000 pesos a month, and in Quilotta a specially skilled workman obtain from 4,500 to 5,000 pesos a month during the first year, which is considered the minimum period for the immigrant to settle down. On the other hand, in centres of secondary importance such as Temuco, Valdivia, Corral or Puerto Montt, salaries are distinctly low: 50 pesos a day for a mechanic (in the timber industry) in Temuco; 5,000 pesos a month for a technician (overseer) in plywoods, in Valdivia, and 3,000 pesos a month for a metallurgical worker in Corral (see Table 67).

/Usually the immigrant

Usually the immigrant receives the same emoluments as the Chilean workman in every case, plus the extra advantage (such as welfare, social insurance, etc.,) proscribed by law. In some cases, more particularly in large firms, the workman enjoys special benefits authorized voluntarily by the employer himself: family allowances, rent allowances, medical attendance, selling co-operatives, supply stores, etc. But all the employers consulted declared themselves willing to ensure to the specialist workman from abroad a salary above the current rate, according to his efficiency, his output and his domestic responsibilities.

The salaries for work on the land are, as has been observed, considerably inferior.

There emerge two distinct attitudes on the part of employers towards the payment of qualified immigrants. A certain number of employers, usually in large firms, are sufficiently aware of the impossibility of attracting and holding an immigration of this class by means of salaries inconsistent with reasonable standards of living, to be willing to raise them in the case of specialist staff. Most employers, however, and especially those of medium-sized or small concerns, will only offer the current rates applicable to personnel with a low standard of productivity. Reasons for this attitude consist in such factors as the financial difficulties of the firms concerned; the fear lest immigrants should either fail to adapt themselves to employment in Chile, or should soon establish themselves on their own and cease to draw any salaries; the friction that might ensue from the higher salaries of the immigrants, and the fear lest the others should ask for the same terms, leading to disturbances and to a general rise in salaries and daily wages; and lastly, the suspicion that the contributions from immigration should cause an increase in productivity which would result in a short-term increase in the profits of the firms concerned, since the latter are usually not in an economic condition, nor inclined to make long-term investments yielding profits of a general and uncertain nature.

/The need

The need for qualified staff is however so acute, and the opportunities for its employment so obvious, that the problems of salaries for immigrants with special qualifications can be solved quickly enough in their favour, especially when the employers are themselves convinced that the departure of immigrant specialists for other occupations is chiefly due to economic pressure caused by inadequate pay and standards of living to which they refuse to resign themselves. If the influx of immigrant specialists were to become fairly widespread, it might possibly cause a rise in normal salaries; but these would reflect an increase in productivity so that they would serve merely to indicate actual economic progress and the greater well-being of the working class, whose higher standard of living constitutes the chief aim in the expansion of the country's economy.

C. Costs. (For a valuable estimate it is necessary to wait for official figures promised for the middle of March. This section of the present work can be completed very quickly before the whole study is printed in its final form).

3. GOVERNMENT MEASURES

To judge by the declarations of principle that we find in legal texts, by recent practice and by documentary and verbal evidence from official sources 1/, the Government of Chile appears to have formulated a clear policy on immigration, as has been stated already: this may be summarized as follows:

1. The Government wishes to foster an immigration with the following characteristics:

1/ Reply of the Minister of Land and Colonization, 14 December 1949, to the questionnaire of the Economic Commission for Latin America; reply of the same Minister to the questionnaire formulated on 29 May 1947 by the United States Ambassador to Venezuela; interview with Señor Darío Poblete, Minister-Secretary to the Chilean Government.

- a) It should be limited as to numbers by the receptive capacity of the economy of the country, and selected as to type according to the technical requirements of agriculture, and still more of industry;
- b) It should come from countries with cultural and demographic affinities to Chile, in order to ensure the rapid assimilation of the immigrants and to guarantee that they will not form national minorities or foreign political groups in the heart of the Chilean population.

2. The full implementation of this policy is difficult on account of lack of the private capital and public funds necessary for making it a reality.

The opinion of the government coincides, broadly speaking, with the results that appear to emerge from the present investigation of the subject. But various circumstances, chief among which is the shortage of necessary funds, cause delay in the adoption of measures that should correspond, where legislation and practical policy are concerned, to the policy enunciated in theory.

Without disregarding in any way the problems afforded by the financial situation, it nevertheless does seem necessary, that suitable steps should be taken to reform Chilean legislation and the appropriate public bodies in such a way as to attract and settle in a profitable manner the flow of immigrants from whom so much is hoped in regard to the development of the economy of the country. Measures of this kind would, in fact, have obvious value, both for the regulating and directing along useful lines either the spontaneous or the planned immigration which is actually taking place, and for the creation of conditions likely to assist in solving the financial problem, with a view to larger immigration movements under systematic control. If the legal instruments and organisations are clearly defined, the task of making complete arrangements for planned immigrations endowed with the necessary financial resources would definitely be facilitated to a very great extent.

/It is clear

It is clear that, in order to achieve such a purpose, the Government should first create clearly defined and efficient legal instruments. It would be helpful to promulgate a general immigration law, the main provision of which might be as follows:

- 1) It would contain within one single piece of legislation all the numerous valuable resolutions at present scattered among a number of different regulations, giving them coherence and harmony, and discarding out-dated and contradictory provisions;
- 2) It would repeal the current restriction on foreign immigrants and naturalized Chileans, especially as regards settlement on the land; it would also continue the generous and liberal legal traditions of Chile in both theory and practice, by measures for speeding up the acquisition of Chilean nationality for those immigrants whose settlement and contributions to the country's effort deserve this privilege;
- 3) It would create a well-integrated and harmonious system of an organic character, pending further regulations, for the orderly and straight forward application of such legislation when it comes;
- 4) Lastly, it would budget, through Government decrees, the financial resources indispensable to the task of attracting to Chile and settling a selective immigration group: only such measures as these could expedite the action of the Government for the actual subscription of resources would have to depend on the practical arrangements made for each concrete plan individually.

Where the practical aspect of this legislation is concerned, the outstanding requirement consists in the formation of an organization that would assume full responsibility, with executive powers; where theoretical investigation is concerned, it consists in the formulation and application of relevant plans, without any interruption in the delegating of research together with the practical application of those sections of each plan that are of a nature to require it, to the appropriate specialist bodies: in short, the suggested organization would centralize planning and co-ordinate the execution of all schemes.

It is all the more necessary in that the public bodies at present concerned with the business of immigration are several in number, and

/perform their

perform their functions without due co-ordination. The Permanent Commission possesses powers of a purely advisory nature, and its organization as a mere collegiate body without executive authority of sufficient scope and permanence makes it inadequate for the matter in hand. Further, there is no organization of any kind in existence with the task of formulating plans and assuring the systematic absorption of immigration into industry, which is precisely the most important type of immigration in the eyes of the Government.

The most urgent of the requirements involved in the proposed setting up of a well-integrated system of functional organizations consists in a careful survey, with exact statistical detail, of the needs and receptive capacity of Chile where a selective immigration, whether industrial or agricultural, is concerned; and such a survey would have to be kept up to date year after year. On such a basis of factual knowledge it would be possible to make a series of plans to satisfy needs where possible by means of the combination of spontaneous movements of immigration, and immigrations planned with the co-operation of other governments and international organizations.

4. INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION

It is obvious that one of the most efficacious and fruitful ways of giving technical assistance to countries with an under-developed economy consists in co-operating with them in order to ensure them a selective immigration in proportion to their shortage of skilled personnel and to their receptive capacity. It is for this reason that the question of immigration as an aid to economic expansion has awakened keen international interest, and that its solution is part of the principal aims of the United Nations.

If there are countries like Chile in need of a limited immigration of industrial and agricultural specialists, there are also others whose demographic, technical and economic position favours an emigration of those persons who, despite their training in methods of production, are not at present able to find profitable employment in wealth-producing
/activities. It

activities. It is therefore not impossible to come to an arrangement mutually beneficial to the cause of world economic and cultural progress and to the achievement of peace.

Such an arrangement could be made into a concrete and valuable reality by means of the interested governments and the appropriate international organizations. The former could perhaps make profitable and successful conventions by means of direct negotiation. The latter could definitely offer valuable assistance in the prosecution of the enterprise. Technical help could in fact be provided by international organizations themselves, with a double purpose in view; firstly, of helping the governments of the receiving countries to decide on the needs and capacity in regard to immigration of their respective economies, and also to establish the legal and practical means of ensuring a useful influx of immigrants; and secondly, of selecting the members of immigration groups in process of being formed, and of directing them into suitable employment. Nor would it be impossible to arrange for international assistance in the accumulation of financial resources which might be lacking for the execution of well-matured and efficiently prepared plans. For this the co-operation of the countries supplying immigrants, the countries receiving them, and the appropriate international organizations might lead to fruitful results.

CONCLUSIONS

- 1a. Chile's economy, which is undeveloped and in the throes of a painful evolution towards progress, suffers amongst other things from a shortage of technically qualified persons both in agriculture and industry, in order to achieve greater productivity and the expansion of economic activities, and for the raising of the standard of living to higher and more satisfactory levels.
- 2a. Immigration in general, and especially that from European sources, has always been a principal factor throughout the history of Chile
/in stimulating

in stimulating technical and economic progress; today it plays an important and even leading part in the industrial and commercial activities of the country. The contributions of immigrants in the way of initiative and technical knowledge have largely determined the evolutionary trend of Chile's economy.

- 3a. Chile has never erected an "economic barrier", nor has it done so today. As a result the flow of immigrants, whether voluntary or under contract, has always been moderate and continues to be so. The moderate extent of Chile's natural resources, the system of land tenure, the widespread economic debility, the large increase in population and the low standard of living are other limiting factors where a mass immigration is concerned, which is no more practicable today than it was in the past, and which is not likely to become so in the future.
- 4a. It is however possible to infer from the experience of history and from recent experiments that a limited immigration would be successful, its numbers being based on the receptive capacity of the country, its type on the technical qualifications corresponding to the shortages in the economic pattern, and its source on the demographic and cultural character of Chile; such countries as are covered by this last provision have in fact always been the ones to supply immigrants to the country. Chile would, thanks to the planning and directing of such an immigration, rid itself of the technical obstacles hampering the productivity of the economy and the social improvement of the population.
- 5a. The policy of the Chilean government is in general agreement with the foregoing conclusions. But this policy lacks practical means of implementation. It would therefore be useful to initiate reforms in regard to legislation and organization, in order to give the aforesaid policy the means of bearing fruit to its full capacity. Among

capacity. Among the most obvious provisions are the following: the repealing of economic discrimination against immigrants and naturalized Chileans; the integration of executive bodies into a single coherent and efficient system of organization for the regulation of immigration; the methodical and continued study of the needs and potentialities of the country, in matters of immigration, for economic development.

- 6a. Its past and present history show Chile to possess qualitatively a vigorous capacity for the reception and assimilation of immigrants. As a result, the Chilean legal traditions must be retained and jealously preserved where the free admission and generous treatment of qualified immigrants is concerned. One of the chief obstacles to the development of immigration plans on an adequate scale consists in the shortage of resources in the Chilean exchequer. Such an obstacle could be avoided by co-operation between the Chilean government, the governments of countries supplying immigrants, and the appropriate international organizations.
- 7a. The increasing of selective immigrations is one of the most successful ways of providing technical assistance to countries with an under-developed economic pattern. The collaboration of the appropriate international bodies in such a scheme would have excellent results. Apart from the solution of financial problems, the assistance under reference could consist in the technical aid applicable to the requirements described, to the carrying-out of projects, to the selection of immigrants, and to their direction into the social and economic life of the country receiving them.

IMMIGRATION IN CHILE

TABLES

1 - 67

Table 1

Agricultural Classification of Chilean Landa/

Classification	Area in hectares	Percentages
I. Agricultural land.	29,010,100	39.1
A) Arable:	5,877,600	7.9
1. Irrigated	1,305,000	1.7
2. Non-irrigated	4,572,600	6.2
B) Not arable:	23,132,500	31.2
1. Shrubs and pasture	6,786,300	9.2
2. Forest <u>b/</u>	16,346,200	22.0
II. Barren land <u>c/</u>	45,166,600	60.9
	74,176,700	100.0
Population <u>d/</u>	5,740,000	
Density per 1,000 hectares under cultivation	977	

a/ Agriculture in the Region of Concepcion and the Frontier
 ("La Agricultura en la región de Concepción y la Frontera") -
 Report prepared for the Advisory Council of the Ministry of
 Public Works by the Agronomist Reinaldo Wilhelm G.,
 Agricultural Delegate, 1949.

b/ Includes 8,954,400 hectares of woodland suitable for pasture.

c/ Includes area occupied by water, towns, paths, etc.

d/ Latest official estimate.

Table 2 Estimated Geographical Distribution of Chile's Agricultural
Resources

Section A									
	Zones			Barren Land			Agricultural Land		
	(1)			(2)			(3)		
	Area	Percentages		Area	Percentages		Area	Percentages	
		Of(1)	Of(7)		Of(1)	Of(8)		Of(1)	Of(9)
Northern	30,832,600	100.0	41.5	29,387,200	95.3	65.1	1,445,400	4.7	5.0
Central	18,559,300	100.0	25.2	4,581,100	24.8	10.0	13,978,200	75.2	48.2
Southern	24,784,800	100.0	33.3	11,198,300	45.2	24.9	13,586,500	54.8	46.8
	(7)			(8)			(9)		
	74,176,700		100.0	45,166,600		100.0	29,010,100		100.0

/Section B

Table 2 Estimated Geographical Distribution of Chile's Agricultural Resources

Section B									
	Arable Land			Pasture			Forest ^{a/}		
	(4)			(5)			(6)		
	Area	Percentages		Area	Percentages		Area	Percentages	
		Of(1)	Of(10)		Of(1)	Of(11)		Of(1)	Of(12)
Northern	220,200	0.7	3.8	1,064,000	3.4	15.6	161,200	0.5	0.9
Central	5,527,400	29.5	94.0	1,470,800	7.9	21.8	6,980,000	37.6	42.8
Southern	130,000	0.4	2.2	4,251,500	17.2	62.6	9,205,000	37.2	56.3
	(10)			(11)			(12)		
	5,877,600		100.0	6,786,300		100.0	16,346,200		100.0

^{a/} Includes 8,954,000 hectares of woodland suitable for pasture.

Sources: Agriculture in the Region of Concepcion and the Frontier -
 ("Agricultura en la región de Concepción y la Frontera") -
 Report prepared for the Advisory Council of the Ministry
 of Public Works by the Agronomist R. Wilhelm G.,
 Agricultural Delegate, 1949; and A Plan for Agriculture,
 Ministry of Agriculture, Santiago, 1945.

Table 3 Agricultural Classification of Land in the Region
comprising the Provinces of Ñuble, Concepción, Arauco,
Bío-Bío and Malleco

Classification	Area (hectares)	Percentages	
		Of I	Of the whole country
I Area	5,119,300	100.0	6.9
II Agricultural land	3,947,500	77.2	13.6
A) Arable	1,647,100	32.1	28.0
1. Irrigated	262,200	5.1	20.1
2. Non-irrigated	1,384,900	27.0	30.2
B) Not arable	2,300,400	45.0	9.9
1. Woods and pasture	728,200	14.2	10.7
2. Forest	1,572,200	30.8	9.6
III Barren Land	1,171,800	22.8	2.6
IV Population		935,500	
Density per 1,000 hectares under cultivation			568

Source: "Agriculture in the Region of Concepcion and
the Fronter" - op. cit.

Table 4

Distribution of Arable Land in Chile, 1936

(Hectares)

Distribution of farms according to size			Mean area	Number of farms		Percentages of the number		Total areas		Percentages of area	
0 a	20		4.7	<u>129,227</u>	129,227	<u>72.3</u>	72.3	<u>608,785.3</u>	608,785.3	<u>2.4</u>	2.4
21	200		45.2	32,348		18.0		<u>1,463,546.7</u>		<u>5.8</u>	
201	500		215.1	<u>12,281</u>	44,629	<u>6.8</u>	24.8	2,642,245.0	4,105,791.7	<u>10.5</u>	16.3
501 a	2,000		939.9	3,562		2.0		3,348,158.1		13.3	
2,000	y más		11,631.6	<u>1,464</u>	<u>5,026</u>	<u>0.9</u>	<u>2.9</u>	<u>17,028,757.6</u>	<u>20,376,915.7</u>	<u>68.0</u>	<u>81.3</u>
				178,882		100.0		25,091,492.7		100.0	

Source: Statistics compiled by Jacobo Schatan in: "The Situation regarding Agriculture and Livestock" ("La Realidad Agropecuaria" - The Economic Picture (Panorama Económico), April 1947.

Data secured by the Census for Agriculture and Livestock, 1936, last issue.

Table 5.

Land Use

(Thousands of hectares)

	Crop years				
	1925-26	1929-30	1935-36	1942-43	1948-49
Arable land	20,026.9	24,051.4	21,434.0	29,263.8	-
I. Cultivated area	(1,539.8)	3,495.9	5,796.8	6,243.1	5,903.2
1. Yearly crops	865.8	1,101.0	1,233.5	1,229.5	1,364.9
a) Cereals	747.0	921.0	961.0	979.0	1,100.0
b) Legumes	97.0	114.0	166.0	135.0	131.0
c) Potatoes	26.0	43.0	43.0	55.0	51.0
d) Vegetables	11.2	14.6	13.0	22.5	27.4
e) Industrial crops	4.6	8.4	10.5	38.0	55.5
2. Cultivated pastures	574.0	931.8	168.8 ^{a/}	1,300.6	1,082.8
3. Permanent crops	100.0	104.5	191.7	167.1	160.5
a) Orchards	29.7	22.2	95.9	85.6	74.0
b) Vineyards	70.3	82.3	95.8	101.5	86.5
4. Fallow land	(511.7)	1,359.1	4,202.8	3,525.9	3,295.0
a) Up-turned fallow land	511.7	-	-	628.4	595.0
b) Natural pastures on arable land	-	-	-	2,897.5	2,700.0
II. Natural pastures unaffected by crop rotation	13,086.2	15,006.0	12,025.1	6,786.3	-
III. Woodland	4,689.2	5,517.5	(3,612.9)	16,234.4	-
1. Artificial woods	17.2	33.7	90.5	143.5	255.3
2. Natural woods	4,269.1	5,514.8	3,522.4	7,136.5	-
3. Woods and thickets	582.9	-	-	8,954.4	-

Source: Economic Survey of Latin America 1949, Volumen II, Chapter IV: Development of Agriculture in Chile.

^{a/} Only alfalfa and clover.

Table 6. Planted area, Production and Yield of Principal Crops

	1936 - 1937			1942-1943			1948 - 1949		
	Planted area (hectares)	Harvest (metric quintal)	Yield (Q.M. per hectare)	Planted area (hectares)	Harvest (metric quintal)	Yield (Q.M. per hectare)	Planted area (hectares)	Harvest (metric quintal)	Yield (Q.M. per hectare)
Wheat	780,000	7,800,000	10.0	750,598	8,563,400	11.4	867,400	11,134,841	12.8
Barley	71,931	966,133	13.3	46,624	729,470	13.4	53,200	1,073,418	20.1
Oats	113,329	1,000,514	8.8	87,503	776,505	8.8	101,200	722,283	7.1
Rice	1,110	55,000	49.5	28,796	1,090,273	37.9	24,300	834,000	34.3
Rye	11,357	81,243	7.1	9,375	60,980	6.5	8,000	48,197	6.0
Maize	49,715	686,272	13.8	54,684	692,577	12.6	46,000	741,979	16.0
Potatoes	51,186	4,454,200	87.2	54,796	5,119,063	93.4	51,100	5,569,927	109.0
Beans	95,455	844,270	8.8	83,808	700,139	8.3	79,100	731,585	9.2
Peas	31,178	248,823	8.0	26,739	221,085	8.3	22,100	153,051	6.9
Lentils	67,340	518,087	7.6	13,070	110,197	8.4	20,200	185,107	9.1
Chickpeas	11,695	45,006	4.1	7,600	43,526	5.7	9,900	66,880	6.7
Hemp: Fibre		69,000	9.6		204,904	10.0		52,812	10.5
Seed	7,171	62,973	8.8	20,340	181,854	8.5	5,030	46,808	9.3
Flax		-	-		12,622	8.5		-	-
Linseed	1,847	9,798	5.8	5,185	35,191	6.8	7,600	61,000	8.0
Sunflower				9,914	128,609	13.0	42,500	503,000	11.8
	1,293,714			1,199,012			1,333,630		

Source: Figures given by the Dirección General de Estadística (Statistical Office).

Table 7. A. Average Yields of Selected Main Crops

Crops	1910-15	1915-20	1920-25	1925-30	1930-35	1935-40	1940-45
Wheat	12.8	11.6	12.0	11.8	10.4	10.8	11.2
Barley	18.0	18.4	17.7	16.9	16.1	14.8	15.2
Oats	15.4	14.7	13.4	14.8	10.8	8.6	9.7
Maize	15.9	14.0	14.5	15.7	14.9	14.2	13.0
Potatoes	80.0	90.4	95.0	97.8	96.8	86.7	86.8
Beans	12.2	11.5	10.6	11.1	9.3	9.1	8.5
Peas	10.6	9.3	9.2	9.5	8.6	7.8	7.8
Lentils	10.5	10.0	8.3	9.0	7.4	5.9	7.0
Chickpeas	5.9	4.7	5.8	7.0	7.5	4.5	4.4

B. Wheat Yields

Years	Yields
1945-46	12.4
1946-47	12.0
1947-48	14.3
1948-49	12.8
1949-50 . a/	10.6
Harvest	12.4

Source: Agricultura e Industrias Agropecuarias, año agrícola de 1945-1946. Dirección General de Estadística, 1948.

a/ Estimated by Dirección General de Agricultura
(Directorate-General for Agriculture).

Table 8: Livestock in Chile

A. Number of head (thousands)

	1936	1943	1948	1949
Cattle	2,573.0	2,391.4	2,310.2	2,344.2
Sheep	5,749.1	6,150.0	6,435.0	
Goats			636.0	
Pigs			585.0	
Horses			523.0	

B. Production of Milk and Milk Products

	1939	1943	1948
Milk (litres)	362,480,000	422,419,610	546,630,935
Consumption:			
a) fresh milk			159,781,125 <u>a/</u>
b) powdered milk			386,849,810 <u>a/</u>
Butter (metric quintals)			46,600 <u>a/</u>
Cheese (metric quintals)			201,300 <u>a/</u>
condensed milk (cases)			607,000 <u>a/</u>

Quantity of fresh milk available per capita in 1948: 27.2 litres

a/ Provisional figures.

Table 8 (Continued)

Livestock in Chile

C. Cattle

Years	Numbers 1,000 head	Cattle slaughtered in Municipal & Private Slaughterhouses		Estimated slaughter of cattle in country districts		Estimated total slaughter	
		(1,000 head)	^{a/} (1,000 tons)	(1,000 head)	(1,000 tons)	(1,000 heads)	(1,000 tons)
1938	2,634.5	415.9	98.2	23.0	4.4	438.9	102.6
1939	2,356.2	449.6	106.3	23.3	4.9	472.9	111.2
1940	2,420.8	472.0	114.0	25.1	5.2	497.1	119.2
1941	2,418.0	492.7	120.3	24.6	5.3	517.3	125.6
1942	2,346.4	503.0	121.5	23.7	5.5	526.7	127.0
1943	2,391.4	505.3	119.9	23.3	5.5	528.6	125.4
1944	2,311.2	528.8	122.9	21.8	5.0	550.6	127.9
1945	2,347.9	566.0	141.8	20.3	5.1	586.3	146.9
1946	2,397.3	577.5	188.7	15.6	5.1	593.1	193.8
1947	2,337.7	526.4	127.4	21.4	5.1	547.8	132.5
1948	2,310.2						

Source: Dirección General de Estadística.

^{a/} Live weight.

Table 8 (Continued)

Livestock in Chile

D. Sheep (1,000 head)

Years	Numbers	Number of Sheep slaughtered				In Country districts	Total
		Municipal and Private Slaughterhouses	Magallanes Cold Storage Packing Plants	Fats Factory			
1935	5,749.1 a/	1,019.0	989.5	280.6	310.4	2,599.5	
1938	-	1,268.8	927.2	23.4	343.9	2,563.3	
1939	-	1,314.3	1,047.5	93.3	358.0	2,813.1	
1940	-	1,354.5	968.3	19.8	370.3	2,712.9	
1941	-	1,428.3	793.3	111.1	382.4	2,715.1	
1942	6,150.0 b/	1,362.5	1,015.1	137.2	370.4	2,885.2	
1943	-	1,408.4	1,052.0	60.5	376.1	2,897.0	
1944	6,800.0 b/	1,381.6	932.7	17.3	362.0	2,693.0	
1945	-	1,355.8	874.5	3.4	366.2	2,599.9	
1946	-	1,332.0	1,014.1	19.1	289.6	2,654.8	
1947	-	1,208.1	640.7	7.5	373.5	2,229.8	
1948	6,435.0 c/	1,216.1	820.2	21.6	368.0	2,425.9	

Sources: a/ Dirección General de Estadística, Agricultural Census 1935-1936
 b/ Estimates. Dirección General de Agricultura.
 c/ Estimates. Dirección General de Agricultura.

Table 9

Agricultural Production and Total Population

Index Numbers - Basis: 1940 = 100

Years	Volume of Production	Total Population
1937	98.5	91.0
1938	99.3	91.9
1939	105.3	92.4
1940	100.0	100.0
1941	98.8	100.6
1942	95.6	102.1
1943	96.4	103.4
1944	107.4	104.9
1945	100.6	106.4
1946	104.6	108.0
1947		111.0
1948		112.4
1949		114.2

Source: Figures issued by the Dirección General de Estadística.

Table 10Consumption of Forest Resources

(Cubic feet)

	Quantities	Percentages
Annual Consumption	1,338,000,000	100.0
Cut down	196,000,000	14.6
Fires	682,000,000	51.0
Diseased trees	460,000,000	34.4
Growth	730,000,000	
Loss	608,000,000	

Source: "Forest Resources in Chile as a Basis for Industrial Expansion". (North American Technical Mission, Santiago, 1946.

Table 11. Fish Production in Chile

(Metric tons)

1935-39	31,787
1943-44	40,174
1946	60,943
1947	60,026

Source: "Report of the Joint Working Party of ECLA/FAO", 1949.

Table 12Mining Production in Chile

(Metric tons)

Products	1937	1943	1948	1949 <u>a/</u>
Nitrate	1,413,825	1,171,151	1,786,737	1,616,000
Copper	413,283	497,141	444,949	342,000
Iron ore	1,529,702	4,637	2,710,941	-
Metal content	916,291	2,818	1,681,480	2,943,890
Coal (in kilogrammes)	1,988,371	2,031,548	2,234,058	1,882,000
Iodine	1,173,031	824,434	853,164	73,982
Gold	8,482	5,504	5,109	5,087
Silver	57,686	31,311	26,810	23,509

a/ 11 monthsSource: Dirección General de Estadística.

Table 13Mineral Exports and Total Exports

(In Millions of U.S. Dollars)

Years	(A)			(B)	(A) as Percentage of (B)
	Mineral Exports			Total	
	Copper	Nitrate	Total	Exports	
1929	122.7	127.3	246.6	279.1	88.3
1937	103.9	39.1	155.0	095.2	79.4
1943	107.9	26.2	141.5	178.8	79.2
1947	173.3	37.6	210.9	277.0	76.1

Source: International Monetary Fund
(Fondo Monetario Internacional)

Table 14 Development of Chilean Industry

(In Chilean currency)

	1938	1945	1946
Number of enterprises	3,666	4,397	3,322 <u>a/</u>
Number of employees and workmen	105,053	151,940	156,080
Wages and salaries	\$1,519,537,177	\$2,321,544,000	\$2,711,812,000
Capital		6,955,710,000	7,959,704,000
Value of raw materials	2,261,970,212	7,280,117,000	8,623,322,000
Domestic		5,113,530,000	6,172,217,000
Imported		2,166,587,000	2,451,105,000

a/ Incomplete; does not include the smallest factories.

Source: Dirección General de Estadística.

Table 15 Value of Production in the Main Branches of Industry

(In thousands of pesos)

Branches of Industry	1938	1945	1946	1948
Rock and sand	116,910.8	479,405.7	635,902.9	
Glass	40,052.2	192,391.3	233,011.9	
Metals & machinery	291,293.2	1,324,106.9	1,439,706.8	
Chemical products	285,994.3	1,302,588.2	1,511,087.5	
Textiles	464,885.6	2,087,340.5	2,450,179.0	
Paper & printing	262,882.5	741,499.0	849,156.4	
Leather & rubber	346,353.2	1,232,558.4	1,378,429.1	
Timber	167,112.0	634,551.3	773,059.1	
Articles for recreation	15,327.4	32,267.0	33,363.8	
Foodstuffs	1,614,785.0	4,445,487.9	5,403,633.0	
Beverages	164,575.6	548,691.5	641,735.0	
Tobacco	134,696.8	491,685.7	561,440.3	
Clothing	90,647.3	513,286.1	651,566.5	
Gas & electricity	228,420.5	622,027.7	756,001.7	

Sources: "Estudio de las economías nacionales. Industrias"
 ("A Study of the Economic Activities of the
 Country. Industries"): Corporación de Fomento de
 Producción (Corporation for Production Development), 1949.

Table 16; General Production Index

Basis: 1936-38 = 100

Years	Agriculture	Mining	Industries	Building	Total
1936	99.6	83.2	92.5	94.3	91.5
1937	99.5	114.5	100.0	108.0	105.6
1938	100.4	102.3	107.5	97.7	102.9
1939	110.0	100.1	101.8	123.6	104.7
1940	115.5	108.2	113.7	142.0	113.1
1941	101.9	124.5	124.8	146.1	117.2
1942	97.0	120.5	122.7	115.4	112.5
1943	100.9	119.7	122.0	142.7	114.2
1944	125.5	118.6	120.6	162.3	122.8
1945	108.7	116.8	135.0	155.5	119.3
1946	108.2	104.6	145.9	228.3	119.2
1947	107.2	119.1	155.9	177.3	125.2
1948	112.7	125.5	163.0	161.5	130.8

Source: Estadística Chilena - Sinopsis, 1948.
 (Statistics for Chile - Synopsis)

Table 17Production of Electric Power in Chile

(In millions of kilowatts)

1944	729
1945	893
1946	986
1947	1,084
1948	1,166

Source: "Estadística Chilena, Sinopsis", 1948
Dirección General de Estadística.

Table 18Coastal Traffic in Chile

(In thousands of metric tons)

1947	1,929.4
1948	2,220.8

Source: "Estadística Chilena -
Sinopsis", 1948
Dirección General de
Estadística.

Table 19

Railway System in Chile

<u>A. Railroad tracks (kilometres) in 1947</u>	
1. In use	9,840
2. In construction	501
3. 2 as percentage of 1	5
<u>B. Index numbers. Base: 1947 = 100</u>	
1913	82
1921	84
1930	92
1941	93

Source: "Estudio Económico de América Latina" (Economic Survey of Latin America) - Chapter 6 - "Transportation". United Nations Economic Commission for Latin America.

Table 20.

Railway System, Population and Area in 1947

Inhabitants per kilometre of railway	567
Square kilometres, area, per kilometre of railway	75

Source: Dirección General de Estadística.

Table 21Road System in Chile

(Kilometres)

Type of Road	1938	Percentages	1947	Percentages
Dirt roads	31,711	75.8	34,734	68.2
Gravel roads	9,807	23.7	14,784	29.0
Paved roads	<u>271</u>	<u>0.5</u>	<u>1,407</u>	<u>2.8</u>
	41,785	100.0	50,925	100.0

Source: Dirección General de Estadística.

Table 22Road System, Population and Areain 1947

Inhabitants per kilometre of road	109
Square kilometres of area per kilometre of road	14.5

Source: Dirección General de Estadística.

Table 23Rail Traffic in Chile

(In thousands)

Years	Freight (metric tons)	Passengers (numbers)
1939	9,924	1,999
1940	9,795	2,097
1941	10,032	2,115
1942	10,153	2,751
1943	10,656	4,336
1944	10,740	4,936
1945	11,263	5,610
1946	10,901	4,856
1947	11,389	4,202
1948	12,737	3,262

Source: "Estadística Chilena", Sinopsis, 1948
Dirección General de Estadística.

Table 24

Registered Vehicles in Chile

Years	Motor Vehicles			Horse-drawn Vehicles	
	Motor cars	Buses	Trucks	Passengers	Cargo
1938	30,704	1,562	11,575	5,238	88,212
1939	31,992	1,709	12,425	4,802	78,721
1940	33,404	2,158	14,306	4,932	81,334
1941	36,292	2,527	15,628	5,057	78,940
1942	35,001	2,595	17,898	5,792	80,178
1943	25,564	2,365	18,227	6,343	74,660
1944	27,269	2,654	19,210	6,469	77,942
1945	28,523	2,534	20,027	6,863	83,016
1946	32,030	3,282	21,869	6,630	82,050
1947	33,636	3,961	23,387	6,454	89,337
1948	36,770	4,132	27,580	6,352	75,696
Index for 1948 on the basis of 1938	19.7	164.5	138.3	121.6	92.0

Source: "Estadística Chilena" - Sinopsis, 1948
Dirección General de Estadística.

Table 25 Balance of Foreign Trade of Chile a/
(In thousands of gold pesos)

1944	† 245.3
1945	† 235.8
1946	† 95.9
1947	† 64.1
1948	† 295.4

a/ Excluding coins and banknotes

Source: "Estadística Chilena", Sinopsis, 1948.
Dirección General de Estadística.

Table 26 Value and Volume of the Foreign Trade of Chile a/
(In thousands: gold pesos; metric tons)

	1944	1945	1946	1947	1948
A. Exports:					
1. Value	959.0	1,020.3	1,113.7	1,356.1	1,597.6
2. Volume	1,940.5	2,784.4	3,532.6	4,279.2	5,271.7
3. Ratio	0.44	0.36	0.37	0.31	0.30
B. Imports:					
1. Value	723.1	756.0	953.7	1,307.3	1,303.8
2. Volume	1,552.3	1,633.9	1,827.8	1,954.1	2,126.0
3. Ratio	0.46	0.46	0.52	0.66	0.61

a/ Including coins and banknotes.

Source: "Estadística Chilena", Sinopsis, 1948.
Dirección General de Estadística.

Table 27

Money Supply in Chile

(In millions of pesos)

Years	Currency accounts	Deposits accounts	Total	Monthly Rate of Velocity
1937	630	1,291	1,921	
1938	720	1,310	2,030	1.67
1939	866	1,519	2,385	1.63
1940	1,041	1,836	2,877	1.66
1941	1,321	2,269	3,590	1.94
1942	1,742	2,715	4,457	2.14
1943	2,117	3,453	5,570	2.02
1944	2,383	3,991	6,374	2.01
1945	2,677	4,697	7,374	2.09
1946	3,164	6,712	9,876	2.04
1947	3,677	7,965	11,642	
1948	4,316	8,959	13,275	
1949				

Source: Dirección General de Estadística.

Table 28

Development of Banking Credit in Chile

(In millions of pesos)

Years	To holders other than banks			To various holders	Total	To		Credit held by Commercial banks
	To the State		Banks			Total		
	To the Govern- ment	To official bodies					Total	
1938	751	70	821	115	936	77	1,013	
1939	743	78	821	218	1,039	123	1,162	
1940	735	156	891	261	1,152	216	1,368	
1941	728	228	956	241	1,297	422	1,719	
1942	720	328	1,048	558	1,606	345	1,951	
1943	773	265	1,038	658	1,696	214	1,910	3,640
1944	876	241	1,117	690	1,807	361	2,168	4,309
1945	1,236	204	1,440	405	1,844	447	2,291	5,301
1946	1,576	275	1,851	523	2,375	1,022	3,397	6,533
1947								
1948								
1949								

Source:

Dirección General de Estadística.

Table 29

Budgetary Receipts in Chile a/

(In millions of pesos)

Years	Goods		Services		Taxes		Various		Total	
	Quantity	%	Quantity	%	Quantity	%	Quantity	%	Quantity	%
1939	58	3.1	126	6.9	1,378	76.3	245	13.7	1,807	100.0
1940	29	1.3	160	7.6	1,597	76.8	296	14.3	2,082	100.0
1941	28	1.1	179	7.1	1,929	77.4	360	14.4	2,496	100.0
1942	36	1.2	207	7.0	2,083	70.5	627	21.2	2,953	100.0
1943	40	1.2	221	6.8	2,336	72.2	644	19.8	3,241	100.0
1944	50	1.1	276	6.7	2,871	70.2	890	22.0	4,087	100.0
1945	49	0.8	293	5.3	3,527	63.8	1,660	30.1	5,529	100.0
1946	64	1.0	350	5.6	4,250	68.6	1,532	24.8	6,196	100.0
1947	71	0.7	389	3.9	5,471	54.8	4,048	40.6	9,979	100.0
1948	74	0.5	495	3.4	10,074	70.1	3,736	26.0	14,379	100.0
1949 b/	116	0.8	515	3.8	11,755	84.2	1,566	11.2	13,952	100.0

a/ Ordinary budgets.

b/ Accounts not closed.

Source: "Estadística Chilena", Sinopsis, 1948
Dirección General de Estadística.

Table 30

Budgetary Expenditure in Chile a/

(In millions of pesos)

Items	1942	1943	1944	1945	1946	1947 1948 1949		
Presidency	2.9	3.2	3.5	5.5	5.8			
Congress	24.5	27.3	28.4	29.5	45.4			
Autonomous services	11.5	11.5	11.6	11.6	24.3			
Interior	439.9	504.6	594.6	743.4	882.3			
Foreign Affairs	38.0	48.3	40.9	44.3	58.4			
Finance	420.6	544.2	566.6	705.7	950.3			
Justice	87.3	108.3	135.0	142.8	207.0			
Defence	700.8	1,123.6	1,297.1	1,546.8	1,745.9			
Public Works	365.3	287.8	340.8	574.4	569.4			
Agriculture	32.1	34.8	36.7	35.6	48.8			
Land and Colonization	17.4	17.6	17.2	17.9	23.4			
Labour	47.1	59.1	74.3	89.2	90.2			
Health	257.8	309.7	341.6	399.9	419.1			
Education	470.0	508.6	516.8	792.4	1,123.2			
Economy and Trade	-	46.2	40.6	36.0	39.8			
Total	2,915.5	3,634.8	4,045.7	5,175.0	6,233.3			

a/ Ordinary Budgets.

Source: Dirección General de Estadística.

Taxation and National Income in Chile

(In millions of pesos)

Years	I. Taxation	II. National Income	Percentages
1940	1,597	16,963	9.4
1941	1,929	19,719	9.7
1942	2,083	25,637	8.1
1943	2,336	28,639	8.5
1944	2,872	31,076	9.2
1945	3,527	34,070	10.4
1946	4,250	41,998	10.1
1947	5,471	54,100	10.1
1948	10,074		

Sources: For Taxation: - Dirección General de Estadística.
For National Income: Corporación de Fomento de la Producción.

Table 32

Investment in Chile

(In millions of pesos)

Items	1940	1941	1942	1943	1944	1945	1946	1947
I. National Income	16,963	19,719	25,637	28,630	31,076	34,070	41,998	54,100
II. Gross Investment	1,833	2,013	2,080	2,566	3,284	3,714	5,450	5,870
1) Durable goods:								
a) Imports of machinery with 50% added to declared value.	851	865	739	790	938	1,039	1,629	2,210
b) Domestic production of machinery and vehicles, plus installation expenses.	131	188	305	346	417	496	628	833
2) Construction:								
a) Building	448	545	563	863	1,262	1,268	2,309	1,772
b) Public works	219	247	248	319	366	582	552	705
c) Investments in railways.	84	33	40	48	91	109	100	100
3) Agricultural improvements	100	135	185	200	210	220	240	250
Gross investment as percentages in national income.	10.8	10.2	8.1	9.0	10.4	10.9	13.0	10.8
III. Depreciation of existing capital assets.	777	840	1,075	1,158	1,195	1,272	1,460	1,894
IV. Net investment.	1,056	1,173	1,005	1,408	2,089	2,442	3,989	3,976
Net investment as percentages in national income.	6.2	5.9	3.9	4.9	6.6	7.2	9.5	7.3

Source: Corporación de Fomento de la Producción.

Table 33 Chile: Internal Public Debt

(In millions of pesos)

Items	1942	1943	1944	1945	1946
Bonds	1,543	2,086	2,692	3,527	4,214
Long-term documents	1,023	1,029	1,031	1,022	1,116
Bank advances	<u>1,689</u>	<u>1,770</u>	<u>1,771</u>	<u>1,769</u>	<u>2,112</u>
Total	3,232	3,856	4,463	5,296	6,226

Table 34 Chile: External Public Debt

(In thousands of dollars)

Items					
Government bonds or Government guaranteed bonds.	288,864	299,623	294,241	286,642	263,955
Bonds without Government guarantee.	<u>12,706</u>	<u>395</u>	<u>245</u>	<u>235</u>	<u>224</u>
Total:	301,570	300,018	294,486	286,877	264,159
Bank advances	31,592	18,744	12,787	12,357	10,767
Port Authority securities	2,054	1,990	1,924	1,860	614
Treasury drafts	3,274	3,170	3,066	2,962	2,585
Loans to State Railways	712	4,711
Loans to the Corporación de Fomento	<u>7,257</u>	<u>10,829</u>	<u>12,714</u>	<u>12,326</u>	<u>12,635</u>
Total	<u>44,177</u>	<u>34,733</u>	<u>30,517</u>	<u>30,217</u>	<u>31,312</u>
Final total:	345,747	334,751	325,003	317,094	295,471

Table 35 Chile: National Income

(In millions of pesos)

Index numbers. Base: 1940 = 100

Years	Population		Net Money Income			Net Income in 1940 Pesos		
	Inhabitants	Indices	Total	Indices	"Per Capita"	Total	Indices	"Per Capita"
1940	5,023,539	100.0	16,963	100.0	3,376	16,963	100.0	3,376
1941	5,057,064	100.6	19,719	116.0	3,899	16,917	99.7	3,345
1942	5,130,089	102.1	25,537	151.1	4,958	17,717	104.4	3,453
1943	5,199,036	103.4	28,630	168.7	5,507	17,010	100.2	3,310
1944	5,272,784	104.9	31,706	186.9	6,013	16,866	99.4	3,198
1945	5,349,209	106.5	34,070	200.8	6,369	16,653	98.1	3,113
1946	5,429,866	108.8	41,998	247.5	7,735	18,508	109.1	3,408
1947	5,577,880	111.0	54,100	318.9	9,699			

Sources: Population: Dirección General de Estadística.
 National Revenue: Corporación de Fomento de la Producción.

Table 36

Net National Product accruing to the variousEconomic Activities(In millions of Pesos)

Activities	1940		1943	
	Amount	%	Amount	%
Industry	2,903.3	17.1	5,862	19.8
Agriculture	2,878.1	17.0	4,671	15.8
Trade	2,524.2	13.7	4,034	13.6
Mining	1,702.2	10.0	2,910	9.6
Services	1,700.0	10.0	2,774	9.3
Government	1,268.0	7.4	2,624	9.0
Rents	1,818.0	10.7	2,442	8.0
Transport	890.7	5.2	1,692	5.7
Building	332.0	1.9	584	1.9
Public utilities	163.1	0.9	408	1.7
Various activities	150.0	0.8	320	1.0
Fisheries	45.0	0.2	74	0.2

Table 37

Population of Chile

Years	Inhabitants		
	Dirección General de Estadística (Statistical Office)		Adjusted Figures
1875	2,075,971	a/	2,219,190 c/
1885	2,527,320	a/	2,491,886 c/
1895	2,695,911	a/	2,804,300 c/
1907	3,249,279	a/	3,228,553 c/
1920	3,753,799	a/	3,731,573 c/
1930	4,287,445	a/	4,287,445 c/
1940	5,023,539	a/	4,885,018 d/
1941	5,057,064	b/	4,947,878 d/
1942	5,130,089	b/	5,011,428 d/
1943	5,199,036	b/	5,075,668 d/
1944	5,272,784	b/	5,140,598 d/
1945	5,349,209	b/	5,206,218 d/
1946	5,429,866	b/	5,272,528 d/
1947	5,577,880	b/	
1948	5,673,861	b/	
1949	5,740,000	b/	

a/ Census figures.

b/ Estimated figures.

c/ Figures adjusted by Roberto Vergara: The Censuses of the Population of Chile ("Los Censos de Población de Chile")

d/ Figures adjusted by Juan Crocco Ferrari: Studies on the Chilean Population ("Ensayos sobre la Población Chilena"), Santiago, 1947.

Table 37. B. Population by provinces

Provinces	1895	1920	1940	1947 a/
<u>Totals</u>	2,712,145	3,753,799	5,025,539	5,577,880
<u>Greater Northern Region</u>				
Tarapacá	89,751	100,553	104,097	109,260
Antofagasta	44,085	172,330	145,147	168,840
Atacama	59,713	48,413	84,312	83,231
<u>Smaller Northern Region</u>				
Coquimbo	160,893	160,256	245,609	241,110
Aconcagua	113,165	116,914	118,049	116,114
<u>Central Region</u>				
Valparaíso	220,756	320,298	425,065	502,720
Santiago	414,494	635,358	1,268,505	1,734,103
O'Higgins	86,419	118,591	200,297	210,879
Colchagua	157,566	166,342	138,036	136,990
Curicó	103,242	108,148	81,185	89,038
Talca	128,961	133,957	157,741	159,189
Linares	101,858	119,284	134,968	126,515
<u>Southern-Central Region</u>				
Maule	119,791	113,231	70,497	60,701
Ñuble	152,935	170,425	243,185	222,648
Concepción	188,190	246,670	308,241	354,720
Arauco	59,237	60,233	66,107	67,557
Bío-Bío	88,749	107,072	127,312	124,890
Malleco	98,032	121,429	154,174	154,346
<u>Southern Region</u>				
Cautín	78,221	193,628	374,659	322,053
Valdivia	60,687	175,141	191,642	207,031
Osorno	--	--	107,341	110,446
Llanquihue	78,315	137,206	117,225	116,418
<u>Extreme Southern Region</u>				
Chiloé	77,750	110,348	101,706	89,860
Aysén	--	--	17,014	19,590
Magallanes	5,170	28,960	48,413	49,622

Sources: Censos de población of 1895, 1920 and 1940 and Estadística Chilena, December 1947, Dirección General de Estadística.

Note: a/ Estimates

Table 38. Population, area and density according to provinces: 1947

<u>Provinces</u>	<u>Estimated population on 31st December</u>	<u>Area (Square kilometres)</u>	<u>Inhabitants per square kilometre</u>
<u>Totals</u>	5,577,880	741,767	7.5
<u>Greater Northern Region</u>			
Tarapacá	109,260	55,287	2.0
Antofagasta	168,840	123,063	1.4
Atacama	83,231	79,883	1.0
<u>Smaller Northern Region</u>			
Coquimbo	241,110	39,889	6.0
Aconcagua	116,114	10,204	11.4
<u>Central Region</u>			
Valparaíso	502,720	4,818	104.3
Santiago	1,734,103	17,422	99.5
O'Higgins	210,879	7,112	29.7
Colchagua	136,990	8,431	16.2
Curicó	89,038	5,737	15.5
Talca	159,189	9,640	16.5
Linares	126,515	9,820	12.9
<u>Southern-Central Region</u>			
Maule	60,701	5,626	10.8
Ñuble	222,648	14,211	15.7
Concepción	354,720	5,701	62.2
Arauco	67,557	5,756	11.7
Bío-Bío	124,899	11,248	11.1
Malleco	154,246	14,277	10.8
<u>Southern Region</u>			
Cautín	322,053	17,370	18.5
Valdivia	207,031	20,934	9.9
Osorno	110,446	9,083	12.2
Llanquihue	116,418	18,407	6.3
<u>Extreme Southern Region</u>			
Chiloé	89,860	23,446	3.8
Aysén	19,590	88,984	0.2
Magallanes	49,622	135,418	0.4

Source: Estadística Chilena, December 1947, Dirección General de Estadística

Table 39

Growth of the Population of Chile

Years	Increases		Net birth rate	Percentages of natural increase per 1,000 inhabitants	Birth rate per 1,000 inhabitants
	Dirección General de Estadística	Adjusted Figures			
1930	38,278	55,962	1,362	15.1	39.8
1931	34,550	56,652	1,160	12.6	34.6
1932	53,075	57,342	1,156	11.4	34.2
1933	45,293	58,031	1,134	6.6	33.4
1934	26,374	58,721	1,169	7.0	33.8
1935	39,115	59,417	1,186	9.1	34.1
1936	44,259	66,110	1,200	9.3	30.6
1937	42,096	60,790	1,161	9.5	33.5
1938	46,662	61,480	1,148	8.9	33.4
1939	26,701	62,170	1,221	10.6	35.2
1940	378,029	62,860	1,232	12.5	35.4
1941	33,525	63,550		12.8	32.4
1942	73,025	64,240		12.8	33.1
1943	68,947	64,930		13.2	33.1
1944	73,748	65,620		13.7	33.2
1945	76,425	66,310		13.3	33.3
1946	80,663	67,000		15.2	32.4
1947	148,014			17.1	33.8
1948	95,981			16.3	33.7
1949	66,139			-	

1931 - 1940: Average net birth rate: 1,177

Source: "Ensayos sobre la población Chilena", op. cit., and Dirección General de Estadística.

**Table 40. Percentual increase of the population according to
provinces: 1895-1947**

<u>Provinces</u>	<u>1895-1920</u>	<u>1920-1940</u>	<u>1940-1947</u>	<u>Percentage of the total population</u>	
				<u>en 1895</u>	<u>en 1940</u>
<u>Totals</u>	38.4%	33.8%	11.0%		
<u>Greater Northern</u>					
<u>Region</u>					
Tarapacá	12.0	3.5	5.0	3.3	2.1
Antofagasta	290.9	- 15.8	16.3	1.6	2.9
Atacama	- 18.3	74.2	- 2.3	2.2	1.7
<u>Smaller Northern</u>					
<u>Region</u>					
Coquimbo	- 0.4	53.3	- 1.9	5.9	4.9
Aconcagua	3.3	1.0	- 1.6	4.2	2.3
<u>Central Region</u>					
Valparaíso	45.1	32.7	18.3	8.1	8.5
Santiago	65.3	85.1	36.7	15.3	25.3
O'Higgins	37.2	68.9	5.3	3.2	4.0
Colchagua	5.6	- 17.0	- 0.7	5.8	2.7
Curicó	4.8	24.9	9.7	3.8	1.6
Talca	3.9	17.8	0.1	4.8	3.1
Linares	17.1	13.1	- 6.3	3.8	2.7
<u>Southern-Central</u>					
<u>Region</u>					
Maule	- 5.5	- 37.7	-13.9	4.4	1.4
Ñuble	11.4	42.7	- 8.4	5.6	4.8
Concepción	31.1	25.0	15.1	6.9	6.1
Arauco	1.7	9.8	2.2	2.2	1.3
Bío-Bío	20.6	19.9	5.6	3.3	2.5
Malleco	23.9	27.0	0.9	3.6	3.1
<u>Southern Region</u>					
Cautín	147.5	93.5	-14.1	2.9	7.5
Valdivia	188.5	9.4	8.0	2.2	3.8
Osorno	--	--	2.9	--	2.1
Llanquihue	75.2	-14.6	- 0.7	2.9	2.3
<u>Extreme Southern</u>					
<u>Region</u>					
Chiloé	41.2	- 7.5	-11.6	2.9	2.0
Aysén	--	--	15.1	--	0.3
Magallanes	460.0	67.2	2.5	0.2	1.0

Source: Data taken from the corresponding census and from the
Dirección General de Estadística.

Table 41. Growth of the population by provinces: 1895-1947

<u>Provinces</u>	<u>Population in 1947 as a percentage of 1895</u>	<u>Coefficient of yearly growth</u>
<u>Totals</u>	205.7	2.0
<u>Greater Northern Region</u>		
Tarapacá	121.7	2.3
Antofagasta	383.0	7.4
Atacama	139.4	2.7
<u>Smaller Northern Region</u>		
Coquimbo	150.0	2.9
Aconcagua	102.6	2.0
<u>Central Region</u>		
Valparaíso	227.7	4.4
Santiago	418.4	8.0
O'Higgins	244.0	4.7
Colchagua	86.9	1.7
Curicó	86.2	1.7
Talca	123.4	2.4
Linares	124.2	2.4
<u>Southern-Central Region</u>		
Maulo	50.7	1.0
Ñuble	145.6	2.8
Concepción	168.5	3.1
Arauco	114.0	2.2
Bío-Bío	140.7	3.7
Malleco	157.4	3.0
<u>Southern Region</u>		
Cautín	411.7	7.9
Valdivia	341.1	6.6
Osorno	—	—
Llanquihue	148.7	2.9
<u>Extreme Southern Region</u>		
Chiloé	155.8	3.0
Aysén	—	—
Magallanes	959.8	18.5

Source: Data from the 1895 Census and from the Dirección General de Estadística.

Table 42 Population of Chile according to age
(Percentages)

Ages	1885	1895	1907	1920	1930	1940
From 0 to 14 years	40.3	40.7	37.6	37.9	37.2	37.2
From 15 to 54 years	53.2	52.2	53.8	54.2	54.8	54.3
55 and over	<u>6.5</u>	<u>7.1</u>	<u>8.6</u>	<u>7.9</u>	<u>8.0</u>	<u>8.5</u>
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: "Ensayos sobre la población Chilena", op. cit.

B. Gainfully employed Population distributed according
to age and sex: 1940

Ages	Men		Women		Total	
Up to 14 years	1.7		2.6		1.9	
From 15 to 19 years	<u>11.9</u>	13.6	<u>13.7</u>	16.3	<u>12.3</u>	14.2
From 20 to 29 years	28.0		30.1		28.6	
From 30 to 39 years	<u>23.1</u>	51.1	<u>21.3</u>	51.4	<u>22.6</u>	51.2
From 40 to 59 years	27.4		24.2		26.6	
60 and over	<u>7.9</u>	<u>35.3</u>	<u>8.1</u>	<u>32.3</u>	<u>8.0</u>	<u>34.6</u>
	100.0		100.0		100.0	

Source: Dirección General de Estadística.

Table 43

Urban and Rural Population in ChileA. Urban and rural population in 1940

	Inhabitants	Percentages	Percentages in 1875
Total population	5,023,539	100.0	100.0
Urban population <u>a/</u>	2,633,479	52.5	27.0
Rural population	2,390,060	47.5	73.0

a/ In centres of more than 1,000 inhabitants.

Source: Dirección General de Estadística.

B. Growth of the Principal Towns, 1930 - 1940

Towns	Percentages of Variations
Santiago	$\frac{1}{4}$ 29.0
Valparaíso	$\frac{1}{4}$ 6.0
Concepción	$\frac{1}{4}$ 7.0
Viña del Mar	$\frac{1}{4}$ 26.0
Talca	$\frac{1}{4}$ 9.0
Antofagasta	- 14.0
Chillán	$\frac{1}{4}$ 5.0
Temuco	$\frac{1}{4}$ 13.0
Iquique	- 22.0
Talcahuano	$\frac{1}{4}$ 23.0
Increase in the whole country	$\frac{1}{4}$ 13.2

Source: "Ensayos sobre la población Chilena", op. cit.

Table 43 (Continued) Urban and Rural Population of Chile
Probable Classification of the Rural
Population according to social groups - 1940

	Landlords (1)	Tenants (2)	Landless Workers (3)	Employees (4)	Totals
Total population					5,023,539
Agrarian population					1,927,055
1. Economically active:					639,786
a) Landlords	151,844				
b) Tenants		123,981			
c) Landless workers			289,291		
d) Employees				43,847	
e) Servants		30,623			
2. Economically inactive families of:					
a) Landlords	317,071				
b) Tenants		287,185			
c) Landless workers			590,404		
d) Employees				92,517	
3. Totals	468,915	441,989	879,787	136,364	1,927,055
<hr/>					
Total number of wage-earners (2) + (3) + (4): 1,458,140					

Source: Plan Agrario ("A Scheme for Agriculture"), op. cit.

Table 44.- Population of Chile distributed according to economic districts

(Percentages)

D i s t r i c t s	Territorial area	1907	1920	1930	1940		1948		
		Total Population	Total Populat.	Total Populat.	Total Populat.	Density	Active Populat.	Total Populat.	Density
Greather Northen <u>a/</u>	34.8	9.3	9.0	8.2	5.8	1.3	7.0	6.5	1.4
Lesser Northen, <u>b/</u>	<u>6.8</u>	<u>9.4</u>	<u>7.2</u>	<u>7.0</u>	<u>7.2</u>	<u>7.2</u>	<u>6.7</u>	<u>6.0</u>	<u>6.7</u>
	<u>41.6</u>	<u>18.7</u>	<u>16.2</u>	<u>15.2</u>	<u>13.0</u>	<u>2.3</u>	<u>13.7</u>	<u>12.5</u>	<u>2.2</u>
Central, <u>c/</u>	8.5	44.7	46.7	48.3	51.1	38.3	50.5	54.0	48.4
Southern Central, <u>d/</u>	7.7	23.9	22.1	20.6	19.2	17.0	18.3	18.0	17.5
Southern, <u>e/</u>	<u>8.8</u>	<u>9.5</u>	<u>11.4</u>	<u>12.7</u>	<u>13.4</u>	<u>12.0</u>	<u>14.4</u>	<u>13.5</u>	<u>11.5</u>
	<u>25.0</u>	<u>78.1</u>	<u>80.2</u>	<u>81.6</u>	<u>83.7</u>	<u>22.4</u>	<u>83.2</u>	<u>85.4</u>	<u>25.9</u>
Extreme South, <u>f/</u>	<u>33.4</u>	<u>3.2</u>	<u>3.6</u>	<u>3.2</u>	<u>3.3</u>	<u>0.7</u>	<u>3.1</u>	<u>3.0</u>	<u>0.7</u>
Whole Country	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	6.8	100.0	100.0	7.7

a/ Provinces of Tarapacá, Antofagasta, Atacamab/ Provinces of Coquimbo, Aconcaguac/ " " Valparaiso, Santiago, O'Higgins,d/ " " Maule, Ñuble, Concepción, Arauco.e/ " " Colchagua, Curicó, Talca y Linares.f/ " " Bio-Bio, Mallecoe/ " " Cautín, Valdivia, Osorno, Llanquihuef/ " " Chiloé, Aysen, Magallanes.

Sources: D.G.E.; for the economic districts, "Geografía económica de Chile" ("Economic Geography of Chile")
by R. Wilhelm, 1949.

Table 45: Economically qualified, active and inactive population

Years	Qualified population	Percentages of the total population	Active population	Percentages		Passive population	Percentages of the total population	Ratio of the active to the passive population
				Of the qualified population	Of the total population			
1930	2,350,653	54.8	1,311,887	56.0	31.0	2,975,558	69.0	2.26
1940	2,653,400	54.3	1,740,189	65.0	34.6	3,283,358	65.4	1.88
1950 <u>a/</u>	3,008,000	53.7	2,316,000	76.9	41.5	3,287,000	58.5	1.42

a/ Estimates

Source: "Ensayos sobre la población Chilena, op. cit.

Table 46

Distribution of the Inactive Population of Chile

Categories	1930		1940	
	Population	Percentages of the total	Population	Percentages of the total
Rentiers	25,933	0.86	25,956	0.80
Pensioners	6,553	0.22	6,446	0.20
In institutions	15,727	0.54	1,530	0.06
In school	20,654	0.67	23,091	0.70
Family dependents	2,784,037	93.56	3,156,234	96.11
Unemployed	<u>122,654</u>	<u>4.13</u>	<u>69,801</u>	<u>2.13</u>
Total	2,975,558	100.00	3,283,356	100.00

Source: "Ensayos sobre la población Chilena", op. cit.

Table 47 Distribution of the Active Population in Chile according to

occupations

(Percentages)

A. According to general activities

Activities	1 9 3 0	1 9 4 0	1 9 4 0 United States
Agriculture	32.3	35.4	18.2
Fisheries	0.3	0.3	0.1
Mining	5.9	5.5	2.2
Industry	15.7	16.5	23.5
Building	<u>4.3</u>	<u>3.3</u>	<u>7.0</u>
Production of goods	64.5	61.0	51.0
Public services and transport	6.5	4.9	7.4
Trade	3.7	3.5	13.9
Finance	0.7	0.7	3.1
Government employment	3.9	4.6	3.2
Private employment	<u>15.7</u>	<u>20.3</u>	<u>21.4</u>
Production connected with above employment	<u>35.5</u>	<u>39.0</u>	<u>49.0</u>
	100.0	100.0	100.0

B. According to sub-divisions of each activity

A. Mining

Branches	1 9 3 0	1 9 4 0
Nitrate and iodine	47.8	25.0
Copper	26.7	27.6
Coal	15.2	20.8
Others	<u>10.3</u> <u>100.0</u>	<u>18.2</u> <u>100.0</u>

Table 47 (Continued) Distribution of the Active Population in Chile

according to occupations

(Percentages)

2. Industry

Branches	1930	1940	1940 United States
Clothing	35.7	32.1	10.5
Foodstuffs	17.8	13.3	8.8
Timber	14.7	11.7	9.1
Metallurgy and mechanics	13.0	16.1	33.6
Textiles	5.7	5.6	11.0
Paper and printing	4.9	4.5	8.8
Beverages	2.0	2.4	1.5
Leather and rubber	1.3	1.8	2.6
Rocks and sand	1.5	8.4	2.2
Chemicals	1.4	2.1	5.8
Tobacco	0.8	0.4	1.1
Glass	0.7	0.8	1.0
Musical instruments and toys	0.1	0.1	-
Others	<u>0.1</u> <u>100.0</u>	<u>0.5</u> <u>100.0</u>	<u>4.0</u> <u>100.0</u>

3. Services

Rail transport	31.2	34.9	37.1
Road transport	23.6	24.4	22.5
Sea and river transport	18.2	18.8	5.9
Electricity, gas and water	12.2	12.1	10.9
Postal services, telegraphic and telephone	8.1	8.4	22.8
Aviation	<u>1.7</u> <u>100.0</u>	<u>1.4</u> <u>100.0</u>	<u>0.8</u> <u>100.0</u>

Table 47 (Continued) Active Population in Chile distributed according
to occupations

(Percentages)

4. Personal Services

Branches	1930	1940	1940 United States
Domestic service	47.0	42.9	22.4
Cleaning	14.5	8.9	4.3
Education	9.6	7.2	15.0
Charity	7.3	7.2	9.8
Hotels and connected trades	6.9	3.7	16.1
Entertainments	2.3	3.1	3.8
Churches	2.2	1.0	3.7
Commission agents	1.2	1.0	
Art and sciences	0.4	0.9	
Various	<u>100.0</u>	<u>24.1</u>	<u>100.0</u>

Source: "Ensayos sobre la población Chilena", op. cit.

Table 48 Active Population distributed according to Economic Groups

A.

Groups	1930		1940		Percentages of annual increase
	Number	Percentages	Number	Percentages	
Employers	338,740	25.3	441,023	25.4	2.6
Employees	177,297	13.5	223,090	13.1	2.6
Workmen	795,350	60.7	1,071,071	61.5	3.0
Total	1,311,387	100.0	1,740,189	100.0	2.9

Economic Groups distributed according to Activities in General

B.

Groups	1930				1940			
	Production of Commodities		Production in connection a/ with services		Production of Commodities		Production in connection a/ with services	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Employers	224,072	66.1	114,668	33.9	257,619	58.7	183,409	41.3
Employees	34,715	19.6	142,576	80.4	81,409	35.7	146,681	64.3
Workmen	558,306	73.9	207,470	26.1	723,553	67.5	347,513	32.5

a/ Includes trade.

C. Industrial Concerns classified according to the persons

employed in them: 1940

Groups	Number of establishments	Percentages of the total	
		Chile	United States
Without workmen	67,744	81.5	4.1
From 1 to 5	6,112	7.3	37.3
From 6 to 50	8,960	10.8	41.7
From 51 to 100	205	0.2	7.1
Over 100	189	0.2	9.8
Total	83,210	100.0	100.0

Source: "Ensayos sobre la población Chilena", op. cit.

Table 49

Economic Activities of Women in Chile

(Percentages)

A. Part played by women in each activity, in
percentages of the total employment

Activities and Other Headings	1930	1940	1940
			United States
Agriculture	5.0	6.5	5.7
Fisheries	1.2	2.3	1.3
Mining	0.8	2.0	1.2
Industry	33.5	32.4	22.0
Clothing	70.5	68.0	26.8
Textiles	12.2	11.3	20.5
Foodstuffs	10.7	5.9	
Building	<u>0.5</u>	<u>1.0</u>	<u>1.7</u>
Production of commodities	<u>11.2</u>	<u>12.7</u>	<u>12.5</u>
Services and transport	4.3	5.3	11.1
Trade	18.0	24.6	24.2
Finance	10.1	12.5	31.0
Government employment	2.3	6.2	21.0
Private employment	67.0	68.0	55.3
Domestic service	61.2	58.5	42.9
Cleaning	16.2	10.2	
Education	<u>9.1</u>	<u>6.6</u>	<u>21.2</u>
Services	<u>35.4</u>	<u>42.5</u>	<u>35.6</u>
Economically active women	21.7	31.5	
Gainfully employed women	19.8	24.3	24.6

Table 49 (continued) Economic Activities of Women in Chile

B. Distribution of Activities

Types of Activity	1930	1940	1940
			United States
Private employment	53.2	56.8	43.4
Industry	26.6	22.0	21.0
Agriculture	9.7	9.4	14.7
Trade	7.9	8.6	4.4
Other activities	<u>2.6</u>	<u>3.2</u>	<u>16.5</u>
	<u>100.0</u>	<u>100.0</u>	<u>100.0</u>

Source: "Ensayos sobre la población Chilena", op. cit.

Table 50

Wholesale Prices in Chile

Index Numbers. Base: 1938 = 100

Years	Domestic Products			Imported Products	General Indices
	Agricultural	Mineral	Industrial		
1939	91.7	104.4	91.7	103.3	97.3
1940	109.7	105.7	100.1	112.4	107.4
1941	131.0	103.4	106.0	143.2	125.2
1942	165.9	127.5	142.2	213.9	170.3
1943	179.7	145.6	144.8	243.0	187.8
1944	195.9	160.8	167.7	227.6	193.9
1945	215.3	167.9	192.7	226.7	206.4
1946	255.3	180.6	225.8	259.4	238.3
1947	350.7	264.5	287.5	291.0	307.4
1948	402.0	328.2	356.2	348.0	365.9
1949 a/	455.6	346.1	410.7	370.9	413.6

a/ Eleven months.

Source: United Nations Economic Commission for Latin America.

Table 51

Cost of Living in Chile

Index Numbers. Base: 1938 = 100

Years	Foodstuffs	Housing	Heat and Light	Clothing	Sundries	Total
1939	93.1	109.0	96.2	104.7	104.2	101.3
1940	114.1	113.4	107.6	114.3	111.2	114.2
1941	130.3	127.3	120.1	145.3	121.3	131.6
1942	171.0	155.4	149.3	183.5	130.3	165.2
1943	202.2	170.6	172.9	207.2	160.8	192.2
1944	217.1	181.7	181.6	264.7	197.2	214.7
1945	231.1	192.2	191.1	317.4	203.4	233.6
1946	263.7	207.6	193.1	396.6	231.4	270.3
1947	360.2	245.7	232.6	557.6	344.1	361.7
1948	419.1	265.3	346.5	632.6	422.8	448.6

Source: United Nations Economic Commission for Latin America.

Table 52

Prices and Salaries in Chile

Index Numbers. Base: 1938 = 100

Years	Wholesale Prices	Cost of Living	Wages (Industry)	
			Real	Money
1939	97.3	101.3	117.0	118.5
1940	107.4	114.2	125.0	143.6
1941	125.2	131.6	129.0	170.4
1942	170.3	165.2	120.0	199.9
1943	187.8	192.2	120.0	231.5
1944	193.3	214.7	125.0	270.3
1945	206.4	233.6	138.0	322.9
1946	238.3	270.8	141.0	383.5
1947	330.5	361.9	132.6	480.0
1948	365.9	427.1	137.4	587.0
1949	414.1 a/	507.0	136.9	694.5

a/ For 11 months of 1949

Source: United Nations Economic Commission for Latin America.

Table 53

Wages and Salaries in ChileA. Wages1. Daily averages according to occupation and sex
(in pesos)

	1941	1942	1943	1944	1945	1946	1947
<hr/>							
Agriculture:							
Men	7.38	7.34	8.95	10.64	12.36	13.70	17.00
Women	5.11	4.20	5.07	6.27	6.91	7.86	10.00
Mining:							
Men	23.77	27.75	32.01	34.57	38.67	39.36	48.35
Industry:							
Men	17.36	23.77	27.83	31.81	37.48	44.13	53.56
Women	9.04	17.20	14.00	16.37	21.50	27.22	34.02
Building:							
Men	21.71	24.93	27.84	31.98	38.93	46.30	55.70
Transport:							
Men	24.15	28.01	28.98	33.64	40.28	45.53	54.67
Trade:							
Men	14.10	14.46	16.20	18.20	23.58	28.59	35.26
Women	6.99	7.12	8.74	9.77	12.95	19.27	21.36
Domestic service:							
Men	7.24	6.99	7.50	11.49	14.78	15.57	20.13
Women	4.33	3.20	4.18	5.59	7.02	8.03	9.53
General average:							
Men	15.49	15.54	21.65	23.32	27.96	32.33	39.48
Women	6.32	9.96	8.97	10.23	12.89	16.27	19.66

Source: "Anuario Estadístico" (Annual Statistical Report):
Caja de Seguro Obrero Obligatorio, (Department of
Compulsory Employment Insurance) May 1949.

Table 53 (Continued)

Wages and Salaries in Chile

A. Wages 2. Weekly averages according to occupation
and sex (in pesos)

	1941	1942	1943	1944	1945	1946	1947
Agriculture:							
Men	43	49	53	67	76	84	100
Women	20	20	31	43	44	51	64
Mining:							
Men	127	161	188	201	237	261	325
Industry:							
Men	112	137	152	135	218	255	307
Women	58	72	80	107	126	157	188
Building:							
Men	92	110	115	144	162	193	242
Transport:							
Men	152	160	175	212	266	299	358
Trade:							
Men	89	100	96	119	150	193	233
Women	44	44	50	64	76	117	135
Domestic service:							
Men	64	63	66	86	110	123	129
Women	39	40	44	55	67	80	86
General average:							
Men	98	117	127	152	176	209	257
Women	49	57	65	81	95	121	141

Source: "Anuario Estadístico": Caja de Seguro Obligatorio,
May 1949

Table 53 Continued)

Wages and Salaries in ChileA. Wages 3. Daily real and monetary wages in leading industries, 1948

Index Numbers. Base: 1937 = 100

Industries	Money Wages	Real wages
Sugar	645.3	139.6
Cement	635.6	137.5
Beer	864.0	137.1
Electricity	790.5	170.8
Matches	1,052.7	227.7
Gas, Coke and Tar	689.6	148.9
Cotton Textiles	1,075.5	231.9
Cloth and Woollen Textiles	863.9	186.4
Paper and Cardboard	675.2	145.8
Tobacco	1,293.0	230.4
General Index	864.4	186.8

Source: Dirección General de Estadística. Sinopsis, 1948

Table 53: (Continued)

Wages and Salaries in Chile

A. Wages

4. Wages for farm-tenants and landless agricultural workers

Contract Labourers

Provinces	Working days	Average wage per working day	Total annual salary in cash	Wages in kind per working day	Total annual wages in kind	Total of wages in cash and in kind per working day	Total annual wages in cash and in kind	Wages in cash per calendar day ^{a/}	Wages in kind per calendar day	Total of wages in cash and in kind per working day
Atacama-										
Coquimbo	265	14.11	1,089.15	17.95	4,756.44	22.06	5,845.59	2.98	13.03	16.01
Aconcagua-										
O'Higgins	250	5.70	1,425.00	20.13	5,032.53	25.83	6,457.23	3.90	13.79	17.69
Colchagua-										
Linares	230	5.10	1,173.00	19.29	4,436.88	24.39	5,609.88	3.21	12.16	15.37
Ñuble-Bío-										
Bío	200	4.90	980.00	16.47	3,295.44	21.37	4,275.44	2.68	9.03	11.71
Malleco-										
Valdivia	190	8.71	1,645.90	22.32	4,239.96	31.03	5,885.86	4.53	11.62	16.53
Osrorno-Aysén	180	9.43	1,697.40	14.73	2,652.12	24.16	4,349.52	4.65	7.27	11.92

Landless Agricultural Workers

Provinces	Working days	Average wages in cash per working day	Average wages in cash per calendar day	Average wages paid in cash per person ^{b/}	
				For farm-tenants	Volunteers
Atacama-					
Coquimbo	265	11.89	8.65	1.37	4.00
Aconcagua-					
O'Higgins	250	13.62	9.33	1.80	4.31
Colchagua-					
Linares	230	11.11	7.00	1.48	3.24
Ñuble-Bío-Bío	200	10.18	5.58	1.24	2.58
Malleco-					
Valdivia	190	10.97	5.71	2.09	2.64
Osrorno-Aysén	180	11.08	5.46	2.15	2.53

a/ The term "wages per calendar day" signifies the result of dividing the annual wage by 365 days.

b/ Reckoned on the basis of a calendar day and assuming that each active person maintains 2-16 inactive persons.

Source: Dirección General de Estadística.

Table 53 (Continued) Wages and Salaries in Chile

A. Wages 5. Average wages in Chile, 1947

Activities	Men	Women
Agriculture	17.00	10.00
Mining	48.35	
Industry	53.56	34.02
Building	55.70	
Transport	54.67	
Trade	35.26	21.36
Domestic Service	20.13	9.53
Average	39.48	19.66

Source: United Nations Economic Commission for Latin America.

6. Daily rates of pay in 29 trades

(Pesos)

Trades	1947				1948			
	Anto- fagasta	Valpa- raíso	San- tiago	Concep- ción	Anto- fagasta	Valpa- raíso	San- tiago	Concep- ción
<u>Food:</u>								
1. Bakers	100.00	82.30	74.10	53.00	101.14	100.10	92.17	75.80
<u>Furniture:</u>								
2. Cabinet makers	40.00	55.70	95.00	50.00	50.00	74.10	120.00	87.80
3. Upholsterers	40.00	50.50	95.00	83.30	60.00	64.00	108.00	102.60
4. Polishers	35.00	64.00	85.00	35.00	40.00	67.00	104.00	60.00
<u>Printing:</u>								
5. Type setters	69.00	156.80	146.40	112.00	78.25	181.30	161.00	124.48
6. Linotypists	--	133.20	158.00	145.15	143.57	198.00	173.00	165.20
7. Mechanics	64.53	167.20	163.60	112.00	--	172.40	168.00	122.56
8. Binders	70.60	148.80	146.40	95.80	89.78	176.40	160.00	129.48
9. Daily labourers	35.36	48.00	112.50	112.00	63.08	65.00	120.00	170.64
<u>Mechanics:</u>								
10. Turners	76.38	73.00	110.00	64.45	76.38	74.15	128.00	74.00
11. Foundry workers	61.47	64.00	104.00	44.55	65.02	93.15	114.00	45.00
12. Modellers	81.35	85.00	109.00	64.00	81.35	95.10	124.00	70.00
13. Daily labourers	64.42	62.00	80.00	29.20	64.42	69.50	82.40	30.00
<u>Building:</u>								
14. Bricklayers	70.00	70.00	85.00	57.50	70.00	84.30	110.00	65.00
15. Concrete mixers	60.00	63.00	96.00	51.75	60.00	72.00	125.00	51.75
16. Carpenters	--	111.00	105.00	57.50	80.00	121.00	120.00	70.00
17. Painters	--	70.85	105.00	51.75	70.00	85.00	120.00	90.00
18. Plumbers	57.50	105.00	105.00	46.00	85.00	115.00	150.00	100.00
19. Electricians	--	100.00	105.00	69.00	--	105.00	130.00	76.00
20. Daily labourers	43.50	48.00	45.00	36.00	63.09	65.00	60.00	40.00
21. Iron workers	60.00	85.50	91.00	63.25	60.00	112.50	120.00	75.00
<u>Electricity:</u>								
22. Electricians	83.00	85.20	87.00	63.00	84.20	90.80	132.00	126.00
23. Daily labourers	71.00	80.00	80.00	52.20	78.06	53.00	81.00	123.00
<u>Railways:</u>								
24. Stevedors	65.00	66.70	78.00	64.00	73.00	73.20	88.00	64.00
25. Labourers on tracks and other works	56.00	58.00	58.00	60.00	57.75	60.00	62.00	60.00
<u>Transport:</u>								
26. Drivers	--	--	--	67.00	--	108.60	128.00	100.00
27. Auxiliaries	--	--	--	32.00	60.00	96.80	112.00	40.00
<u>Cartage:</u>								
28. Drivers	101.48	--	--	60.00	101.48	124.00	140.00	85.00
<u>Public Services:</u>								
29. Labourers	50.00	72.00	59.00	50.00	54.56	78.00	80.00	50.00

Source: Estadística Chilena, January-February, 1949, Dirección General de Estadística.

Table 53 (Continued) Wages and Salaries in Chile

B. Salaries 1. Average annual salaries according to occupations (in pesos)

	1939	1940	1941	1942	1943	1944	1945
Agriculture		4,990	5,730	6,537	8,149		
Mining		25,567	28,396	35,527	41,852		
Industry		14,426	18,125	23,358	27,554		
Transport		11,535	14,056	15,643	17,153		
Services		9,038	11,279	17,660	17,912		
Trade		12,286	15,375	19,880	20,991		
Private employment		15,100	20,574	21,640	22,680		
Finance		18,550	22,884	29,716	34,045		
Government employment		12,510	15,529	18,055	24,314		
General average	8,900	8,580	10,500	15,910	20,587	22,188	22,719
Average for civil servants	10,000	10,800	15,600	17,500			

Sources: Caja de Previsión de Empleados Particulares, and
Caja de Previsión de Empleados Públicos y Periodistas.

Table 53 (Continued) Wages and Salaries in Chile

B. Salaries 2. Legal Minimum Wage

Regions	1946	1947	1948
Greater Northern Region	1,563	2,068	2,497
Small Northern Region	1,376	1,762	2,000
Central Region	1,236	1,640	2,030
Southern Central Region	1,269	1,651	1,973
Southern Region	1,178	1,544	1,819
Extreme South	1,344	1,710	2,059

Wages and Salaries in Chile

3. Distribution according to income levels (percentages)

		1939	1941	1943	1945	1948
Up to	300 pesos	8.8	5.0	3.1	1.3	2.3
301 to	600 pesos	38.0	13.0	2.9	1.6	
601 to	900 pesos	24.0	33.7	5.4	2.3	1.2
		70.8	51.7	11.4	5.4	3.5
901 to	1,200 pesos	10.8	19.1	24.5	8.9	2.0
1,201 to	1,500 pesos	6.0	10.1	20.9	30.0	3.1
1,501 to	2,000 pesos	4.7	7.3	17.7	22.5	7.0
		21.5	36.5	53.1	61.4	12.1
2,001 to	2,500 pesos	2.5	4.0	9.2	10.9	18.1
2,501 to	3,000 pesos	1.4	2.4	4.5	7.2	17.1
3,001 to	4,000 pesos	1.9	2.6	6.1	6.5	20.1
		5.8	9.0	19.7	24.6	55.3
4,001 and over		1.9	2.8	4.7	8.6	29.1
Total		100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Dirección General de Estadística.

Table 54. Personal Income

A. Probable Distribution of the National Income in Chile, 1942

(Pesos)

Income levels			Number of rentier	Perce- tage of total number	Total incomes	Perce- tage of national income	Avera- ge income
Up to	3,000		422,819	21.8	646,000,000	2.7	1,540
3,001 to	6,000		371,517	19.1	1,699,000,000	8.1	4,580
6,001 to	9,000		338,396	17.4	2,720,000,000	11.3	8,050
9,001 to	12,000		77,800	4.0	817,000,000	3.4	10,050
12,001 to	15,000		253,400	13.01	3,251,000,000	13.6	12,800
			<u>1,463,932</u>	<u>75.4</u>	<u>9,135,000,000</u>	<u>39.1</u>	<u>6,240</u>
15,001 to	18,000		148,343	7.6	2,395,000,000	10.0	16,150
18,001 to	24,000		128,600	6.6	2,701,000,000	11.3	21,000
24,001 to	30,000		84,375	4.4	2,230,000,000	9.5	27,000
31,001 to	36,000		32,275	1.7	1,065,000,000	4.4	33,000
			<u>393,594</u>	<u>20.3</u>	<u>8,441,000,000</u>	<u>35.2</u>	<u>21,445</u>
36,001 to	48,000		35,920	1.9	1,483,000,000	6.2	41,000
48,001 to	100,000		29,035	1.5	2,002,000,000	8.3	69,000
100,001 to	150,000		13,853	0.7	1,726,000,000	7.2	124,000
			<u>78,808</u>	<u>4.1</u>	<u>5,211,000,000</u>	<u>21.7</u>	<u>66,122</u>
150,001 to	200,000		1,203		206,000,000	0.9	170,000
200,001 to	250,000		661		147,000,000	0.6	222,840
250,001 to	300,000		423		115,000,000	0.5	272,340
300,001 to	500,000		683	0.1	260,000,000	1.1	376,130
500,001 to	1,000,000		371		244,000,000	1.0	659,950
1,000,001 to	2,000,000		96		131,000,000	0.5	1,364,580
2,000,000 and over			29		110,000,000	0.4	3,800,000
			<u>3,466</u>	<u>0.1</u>	<u>1,213,000,000</u>	<u>5.0</u>	<u>349,971</u>
			<u>1,939,800</u>	<u>100.0</u>	<u>24,000,000,000</u>	<u>100.0</u>	<u>12,888</u>

Source: "Ensayos sobre la población Chilena", op.cit.

Table 54 (Continued)

B. Distribution of Personal Incomes according to

Economic and Social Groups: 1942

(Pesos)

Groups	Number of persons	% of total	Total Incomes	% of total	Average Income
Entrepreneur and Capitalists	485,000	25	12,435,000,000	52	25,600
Employers	318,000	16	5,724,000,000	24	17,980
Workmen	1,137,000	59	5,841,000,000	24	5,140
Total	<u>1,940,000</u>	<u>100</u>	<u>24,000,000,000</u>	<u>100</u>	<u>12,370</u>

Source: "Ensayos sobre la población Chilena", op. cit.

Table 55

Foodstuffs in ChileMinimum requirements and available supplies per inhabitantper year

Foodstuffs	Units	Requirements	Amount available		Differences	
			(1) <u>a/</u>	(2) <u>b/</u>	(1)	(2)
Milk and by-products	litres	161.33	61.97	93.60	-99.36	-67.73
Meat	kilogrammes	36.50	23.10	37.60	-13.40	1/2 1.10
Fish	kilogrammes	16.43	4.20	6.70	-12.23	- 9.73
Eggs	units	104.00	37.40	35.00	-66.60	-69.00
Green vegetables	kilogrammes	36.50	32.39	45.00	- 4.11	1/2 9.50
Fruit	kilogrammes	73.00	50.59	65.00	-22.41	- 8.00
Vegetables	kilogrammes	21.90	9.32	11.70	-12.58	-10.20
Potatoes	kilogrammes	146.00	74.30	80.70	-71.70	-65.30
Cereals	kilogrammes	136.83	135.33	159.70	- 1.50	1/2 22.82
Sugar	kilogrammes	18.25	25.11	24.90	1/2 6.06	1/2 6.65
Fats	kilogrammes	12.70	6.61	8.70	- 6.17	- 4.08
Non-alcoholic drinks	kilogrammes	-	-	4.00	-	-
Alcoholic drinks	litres	-	-	69.60	-	-

a/ Average in 1940-45b/ 1945

Sources: For requirements, Dr. Alfredo Riquelme, Head of the Departamento de Nutrición de la Dirección General de Sanidad; (Nutrition Department of the Directorate General of Health), (1) El abastecimiento de alimentos en Chile ("Supplies of Foodstuffs in Chile"), by R. Wilhelm, Santiago, 1948. (2) Niveles de consumo de la población ("Levels of Food Consumption among the population"), Corporación de Fomento de la Producción, 1946.

Table 56

Clothing in Chile: 1947

Minimum requirements and available supplies per inhabitant
per year

Articles of Clothing	Units	Requirements	Availability	Differences
Cotton textiles	kilogrammes	4,140	3,507	- 0,633
Woollen textiles	kilogrammes	1,590	1,290	- 0,300
Silk textiles	kilogrammes	0,370	0,232	- 0,038
Men's shoes	pairs	1,500	0,900	- 0,600
Women's shoes	pairs	2,000	1,320	- 0,680
Children's shoes	pairs	2,000	0,720	- 1,280

Source: "Ensayos sobre la población Chilena", op. cit.

Table 57

Consumption in Chile, 1940 - 1943

A. Average Percentages

Goods and Services	Percentages of the net Income
Foodstuffs	34.7
Non-alcoholic drinks	2.6
Alcoholic drinks	6.2
Tobacco	1.4
Clothing and textiles for domestic use	15.7
Housing, and articles and services for use therein	15.2
Medical and toilet articles	1.6
Articles for sport and personal effects	1.9
Furniture and utensils	1.2
Transport and communications	3.5
Pictures and reading matter	1.0
Services for the liberal professions	0.6
Entertainments	0.5
Life insurance policies	0.5
Hairdressing and beauty culture	0.4
Others	13.0
Total	100.0
Gambling (percentages of gross income)	3.1
Direct taxes " " " "	4.2

B. General Classification

Goods and Services	Totals (in millions of pesos)				Percentages
	1940	1941	1942	1943	
Consumer goods	7,646	8,827	12,000	15,268	50.8
Semi-durable goods	2,342	2,792	3,506	4,163	15.0
Durable goods	414	547	639	654	2.7
Total goods	10,402	12,166	16,145	20,085	68.5
Direct services	5,055	6,170	7,517	7,836	31.5
	15,457	18,336	23,662°	27,921	100.0

Source: "Ensayos sobre la población Chilena", op. cit.

Table 58

Education in Chile

A. Illiteracy: 1940

<u>Percentages of Illiterates</u>	
Of the total population	41.7
Of the population of 15 years and over	27.3

B. School and University Attendance: 1947

<u>Types of Educational Centres</u>	<u>Number of Pupils</u>	<u>Percentages</u>
Primary	637,700	88.0
Secondary	60,200	7.7
Special Schools	25,400	3.2
Universities	8,800	1.1
	<u>762,100</u>	<u>100.0</u>
Children from 7 to 15 not attending school		34.4

C. Technical Education: 1947

	<u>Number of Persons</u>	<u>Percentages</u>
Average annual increase of the active population	28,000	100.0
Annual average number of technically qualified persons	1,700	6.1
Annual average number of active persons without technical education	26,300	93.9

Source: "Ensayos sobre la población Chilena", op. cit.

Table 59

The Death Rate in Chile

A. Death rate per 1,000 inhabitants or children born alive

Years	General Death rate	Infant Mortality	Deaths from Tuberculosis	Deaths from Other Types of Infectious or Contagious Diseases
1930	24.7	234	2.62	-
1931	22.0	232	2.51	4.99
1932	22.8	235	2.54	5.13
1933	26.8	258	2.60	7.37
1934	26.8	262	2.52	6.78
1935	25.1	251	2.46	6.20
1936	25.2	250	2.56	5.79
1937	24.1	240	2.59	5.37
1938	24.7	227	2.57	5.61
1939	24.6	223	2.57	5.04
1940	22.9	217	2.68	5.20
1941	19.6	200	2.58	4.43
1942	20.3	195	2.64	4.24
1943	19.9	194	2.59	4.11
1944	19.5	181	2.44	3.86
1945	20.0	184	2.54	3.85
1946	17.2	160	-	3.40
1947	16.7	161	2.24	-
1948	17.4	160	-	-

Source: Dirección General de Estadística.

Table 59 (Continued)The Death Rate in Chile

B. Average Expectation of Life

Ages	1930	1940
At birth	36.5	39.5
1 year	47.2	49.1
10 years	47.3	47.9
15 years	43.9	43.7
20 years	39.6	40.1
25 years	36.4	36.9
30 years	33.2	33.6
35 years	30.0	30.2
40 years	26.6	26.7
45 years	23.4	23.4
50 years	20.3	20.0
60 years	14.2	14.0

Source: Dirección General de Estadística.

Table 60. Coefficients of birth, mortality and population growth
by provinces and cities of more than 20,000 inhabitants
1947

Provinces and cities	Coefficients of birth (Births registered per 1,000 inhabi- tants)	Coefficients of mortality (Per 1,000 inhabitants)	Coefficients of population growth
TOTAL	33.8	16.7	17.1
Tarapacá	31.0	14.4	16.6
Iquique	36.5	18.1	18.4
Antofagasta	32.2	13.9	18.3
Antofagasta	35.3	19.3	15.6
Atacama	39.7	17.3	22.4
Coquimbo	42.7	20.8	21.9
La Serena	63.9	34.1	29.8
Aconcagua	35.5	16.0	19.5
Valparaíso	28.2	14.6	13.4
Valparaíso	37.3	20.4	16.9
Viña del Mar	28.6	13.5	15.1
Santiago	29.2	14.2	15.0
Santiago	36.7	18.2	18.5
San Bernardo	65.5	27.9	37.6
O'Higgins	38.7	17.3	19.6
Rancagua	60.9	33.2	27.7
Colchagua	36.5	17.1	19.4
Curicó	35.0	18.5	16.5
Curicó	77.4	47.8	29.6
Talca	35.2	19.7	15.5
Talca	52.0	32.6	19.4
Maule	36.1	17.6	18.5
Linajes	34.6	19.4	15.2
Buble	39.2	19.5	19.7
Chillán	71.9	34.4	37.5
Concepción	43.0	20.2	22.8
Concepción	52.4	24.7	27.7
Talcahuano	53.8	23.4	30.4
Lota	68.9	35.0	33.9
Arauco	38.1	17.7	20.4
Los Angeles	105.4	46.5	58.9
Bio-Bio	39.2	18.7	20.5
Malleco	36.7	18.7	18.0
Temuco	63.9	38.7	25.2
Cautín	31.4	18.2	13.2
Valdivia	36.5	18.9	17.6
Valdivia	69.5	35.5	34.0
Osorno	38.4	19.2	19.2
Osorno	90.1	49.0	41.1
Llanquihue	40.2	19.1	21.1
Puerto Montt	71.0	36.8	34.2
Chiloé	38.5	21.0	17.5
Aysén	41.9	13.7	28.2
Magallanes	25.7	12.9	12.8
Punta Arenas	37.6	19.9	17.7

Source: Estadística Chilena, Dirección General de Estadística, December 1947

Table 61: Life expectancy in Chile and other countries

<u>Countries</u>		<u>1930</u>	<u>1940</u>
Chile		36.5	39.5
	Men	35.4	37.9
	Women	37.7	39.8
Egypt (1936-38)	Men		35.6
	Women		41.5
Canada (1930-32)			(1940-42)
	Men	60.0	62.9
	Women	62.1	66.3
Guatemala (1939-41)	Men		35.9
	Women		37.1
India (1921-31)	Men	26.9	
	Women	26.6	
Denmark (1931-35)			(1941-45)
	Men	62.0	65.6
	Women	63.8	67.7
France (1928-33)			(1933-38)
	Men	54.3	55.9
	Women	59.0	61.6
Italy (1930-32)	Men	53.7	
	Women	56.0	
Spain (1930-31)	Men	48.7	
	Women	51.9	

Source: Demographic Yearbook, United Nations, 1948.

Table 62 Migration

A. Estimated Number of Immigrants entering Chile,

1849 - 1906

Years	Number of Immigrants	Years	Number of Immigrants
1849	85	1886	905
1851	102	1887	808
1852	212	1888	805
1853	51	1889	10,413
1854	35	1890	11,001
1856	460	1891	318
1857	180	1892	286
1858	9	1893	405
1859	11	1894	395
1860	93	1896	1,114
1861	11	1897	970
1862	32	1898	564
1863	12	1899	548
1864	155	1900	936
1866	26	1901	1,449
1869	7	1902	864
1882	2,466	1905	293
1885	1,837	1906	1,442

Source: "Política, legislación y control de la inmigración en Chile y otros Estados Americanos", (The Policy, Legislation and Control of Immigration in Chile and other American countries): by Eliana Bucchi Pensa, Santiago, 1939.

Table 62 (Continued)

B. Movements of Foreigners in Chile, 1908 - 1948

Years	Arrivals	Departures	Differences	Years	Arrivals	Departures	Differences
1908	25,775	12,759	† 13,016	1929	37,988	33,356	† 4,632
1909	19,014	15,867	† 3,147	1930	39,860	37,860	† 1,410
1910	25,788	16,798	† 8,990	1931	29,195	29,888	- 693
1911	24,845	23,841	† 1,004	1932	25,151	25,878	- 728
1912	27,645	15,482	† 12,163	1933	25,396	23,671	† 1,725
1913	35,393	28,248	† 7,145	1934	26,550	26,901	- 351
1914	47,147	21,054	† 26,093	1935	31,524	29,536	† 1,988
1915	17,326	10,408	† 6,918	1936	35,313	32,032	† 3,281
1916	25,878	24,919	† 959	1937	40,085	36,821	† 3,264
1917	30,076	19,009	† 11,067	1938	48,221	44,751	† 3,470
1918	17,953	19,438	- 1,485	1939	54,486	47,960	† 6,526
1919	15,658	15,124	† 534	1940	46,368	45,576	† 792
1920	22,122	18,391	† 3,731	1941	49,790	52,511	- 2,721
1921	21,926	15,072	† 6,854	1942	53,649	55,796	- 2,147
1922	19,528	15,489	† 4,039	1943	72,164	73,276	- 1,112
1923	21,998	17,283	† 4,715	1944	68,250	66,909	† 1,341
1924	37,054	29,166	† 7,888	1945	84,729	84,425	† 304
1925	32,255	25,234	† 7,021	1946	121,888	116,373	† 5,515
1926	27,060	26,837	† 223	1947	122,542	115,599	† 6,943
1927	23,683	24,282	- 599	1948	121,334	106,627	† 14,707
1928	22,395	21,667	† 728				

Source: Dirección General de Estadística.

Table 62 (Continued) C. Foreigners resident in Chile ^{a/}

Nationalities	Annual Census								
	1854 - 1865		1875	1885	1895	1907	1920		1949 b/
Germans	1,929	3,619	4,033	6,808	7,560	10,724	8,950	10,861	20,052
Arabs	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,849	1,634	-
Argentines	10,551	8,100	7,000	9,835	7,507	6,956	7,362	7,048	8,405
Austro-	25	36	375	674	1,550	3,813	1,573	651	788
Hungarians									
Belgians	33	56	86	90	278	391	387	334	452
Bolivians	133	192	278	13,146	8,669	21,968	15,552	10,366	5,606
Brazilians	32	45	45	85	94	189	290	724	568
Canadians	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	194
Cubans	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	358
Colombians	41	51	50	134	143	213	217	252	988
Costa-Ricans	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	155
Czechs	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	325	1,150
Chinese	72	83	122	1,164	999	1,920	1,954	1,605	1,799
Danes	50	128	131	193	241	372	337	272	316
Ecuadorians	113	126	92	334	421	597	711	947	1,096
Slavs	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,354	-	-
Spaniards	915	1,150	1,072	2,508	8,494	18,755	25,962	23,439	26,757
North-									
Americans	683	803	907	924	745	1,055	1,908	2,078	4,440
French	1,650	2,330	3,192	4,198	8,266	9,800	7,215	5,007	4,074
Greeks	3	9	47	109	137	319	522	674	736
Dutch	24	37	76	66	98	524	492	485	908
Hungarians	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	170	1,560
British	1,940	2,972	4,109	5,310	6,838	9,845	7,220	5,292	4,639
Italians	406	980	1,926	4,114	7,797	13,023	12,358	11,070	14,098
Japanese	-	-	2	51	20	209	557	670	526
Lebanese	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	908
Mexicans	58	71	95	110	123	173	183	209	352
Norwegians	1	22	85	217	221	662	319	220	199
Palestinians	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,164	3,156	3,855
Panamanians	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	263
Paraguayans	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	149
Peruvians	599	571	802	34,901	15,999	27,140	12,991	6,223	4,060
Poles	-	-	-	-	-	-	181	601	2,055
Portuguese	168	300	308	331	237	296	403	303	219
Rumanians	-	-	-	-	-	-	144	651	1,644
Russians	20	27	50	109	234	660	1,320	1,343	1,823
Serbs	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,432	-	-
Syrians	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,204	1,345	1,590
Swedes	22	65	85	217	211	376	242	181	285
Swiss	31	79	124	1,275	1,653	2,080	1,677	1,374	1,423
Turks	2	3	3	29	76	1,729	1,282	526	451

Table 52 (Continued) C. Foreigners resident in Chile ^{a/}

Nationalities	Annual Census								
	1854	1865	1875	1885	1895	1907	1920	1930	1949 b/
Uruguayans	21	9	45	94	186	335	407	411	691
Yugoslavs	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4,064	4,666
Venezuelans	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	565
Other nationalities	137	118	59	51	259	401	717	952	1,186
Totals	19,669	21,982	25,199	87,077	79,056	134,524	120,436	105,463	124,049

a/ No group of less than 100 is specified.

Source: Dirección General de Estadística and Dirección General de Identificación y Pasaportes (Identification and Passport Office).

Table 63 Geographical distribution of the Foreign Population
of Chile, 1940

Provinces	Total Population	Foreigners	Percentages
Tarapacá	104,097	7,125	6.6
Antofagasta	145,147	6,424	4.4
Atacama	84,312	1,637	1.9
Coquimbo	245,509	1,538	0.6
Aconcagua	118,049	1,272	1.2
Valparaíso	425,065	13,664	3.2
Santiago	1,268,505	48,393	3.8
O'Higgins	200,297	1,755	0.9
Colchagua	138,036	738	0.6
Curicó	81,185	622	0.7
Talca	157,141	1,125	0.7
Maule	70,497	207	0.3
Linares	134,968	804	0.6
Ñuble	243,185	1,100	0.5
Concepción	308,241	3,773	1.2
Arauco	65,107	234	0.4
Bío-Bío	127,312	958	0.8
Malleco	154,174	1,475	0.9
Cautín	374,659	4,022	1.1
Valdivia	191,642	2,033	1.1
Osorno	107,341	1,216	1.1
Llanquihue	117,225	1,061	0.9
Chiloé	101,706	539	0.5
Aysén	17,014	1,113	6.5
Magallanes	48,813	4,446	9.1
Total	5,023,539	107,274	2.1

Source: Dirección General de Estadística.

Table 64 Analysis of Immigration in Chile up to January 1950,
under the Convention with the International Refugee

Organization

A. Classification of immigrants according to sex, age,
nationality, religion, profession or occupation.

1. Sex and Age

	<u>Arrivals</u>			Totals	Percentages
	1948	1949	1950 January		
Adult men	487	439	290	1,216	44.7
Adult women	428	348	124	900	33.0
Adolescents	33	-	-	33	22.3
Children of 2 to 15	85	177	51	313	
Children under 2	148	94	18	260	
Totals	1,131	1,058	483	2,722	100.0

Table 64 (Continued)

2. Nationalities

Nationalities	Arrivals			Total
	1948	1949	1950 January	
Albanians	-	-	3	3
Germans	-	2	2	4
Armenians	13	1	-	14
Austrians	-	-	2	2
Bulgarians	-	7	5	12
Czechs	-	71	46	117
Spaniards	17	5	4	26
Estonians	-	12	-	12
Greeks	17	26	6	49
Hungarians	-	186	115	301
Letts	56	25	8	89
Lithuanians	13	15	-	33
Poles	281	220	43	544
Rumanians	34	55	18	107
Russians	229	82	7	318
Ukraines	38	68	-	106
Yugoslavs	200	216	214	630
Other nationalities	79	-	-	79
Stateless persons	199	67	10	276
Totals	1,131	1,058	483	2,722

Table 64 (Continued)

3. Religions

Creeds	Arrivals	
	1948	1949
Christians		
Orthodox	437	239
Greek Orthodox	194	15
Roman Catholics	317	554
Greek Catholics	99	122
Protestants	56	111
Lutherans	-	3
Baptists	-	3
	1,103	1,047
Jews	29	-
Mahommedans	-	11
Agnostics	49	-
	1,182	1,058

4. Professions and Trades (Arrivals in 1948 and 1949)

[illegible]

Table 54 (Continued) B. Position as regards employment

1. Initial position

	<u>Arrivals</u>		<u>Totals</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
	<u>1943</u>	<u>1949</u>		
Heads of families who left home:	<u>362</u>	<u>442</u>	<u>804</u>	<u>100.0</u>
a) With employment or other resources:	<u>360</u>	<u>424</u>	<u>784</u>	<u>97.5</u>
On contract	277	347	624	77.6
To work on their own	3		8	1.0
To work with their own means	<u>75</u>	<u>77</u>	<u>152</u>	<u>18.9</u>
b) Without employment:	<u>2</u>	<u>18</u>	<u>20</u>	<u>2.5</u>
On account of having no home		7	7	0.9
On account of illness		2	2	0.2
On account of re-emigration	2		2	0.2
On account of disciplinary measures		9	9	1.2

Table 64 (Continued) 2. Situation on 31 January 1949

(1942 Group)

	Number	Percentages
Heads of families	<u>362</u>	<u>100.0</u>
With work	322	89.0
In the same occupation	<u>261</u>	<u>72.0</u>
With the same employer	203	56.0
With other employers	<u>58</u>	<u>16.0</u>
Working on their own	<u>61</u>	<u>17.0</u>
From the start	8	2.5
Subsequently	<u>53</u>	<u>14.5</u>
Without work	14	3.8
Through giving up employment	11	3.0
Through illness	<u>3</u>	<u>0.8</u>
Re-emigrated persons	5	1.4
From the start	2	0.5
Subsequently	<u>3</u>	<u>0.9</u>
Persons who cannot be traced	19	5.3
Deaths	2	0.5

Table 64 (Continued) 3. Concerns initiated by immigrants

(1948 Group)

Concerns	Number	Percentages
Production of goods	<u>33</u>	<u>87.0</u>
Industry	33	87.0
Metallurgy and mechanics	9	23.3
Electricity	4	10.5
Chemical products	3	7.9
Wood and furniture	4	10.5
Ceramics	1	2.6
Foodstuffs	3	7.9
Clothing	6	15.9
Various other industries	<u>3</u>	<u>7.9</u>
Services	<u>5</u>	<u>13.0</u>
Trade	4	10.5
Health	<u>1</u>	<u>2.5</u>
Totals	<u>38</u>	<u>100.0</u>

Table 64
(Continued)

C. Behaviour (1948 Group)
1. Changes of Profession or Trade

	Number	Percentage
Heads of families	<u>442</u>	<u>100.0</u>
Changes of profession or trade	<u>59</u>	<u>13.4</u>
Through having made different statements in Europe and Chile	23	5.2
Through practising professions different from either statement	<u>36</u>	<u>8.2</u>
Through not finding work in their own profession	<u>12</u>	<u>2.7</u>
Through economic opportunities	14	3.2
Through being trained for another profession as well and practising it	<u>10</u>	<u>2.3</u>

Table 64 (Continued)

2. Changes of employment

	Number	Percentage
Immigrant employees	<u>310</u>	<u>100.0</u>
Change of employment	72	23.2
Through their own wish, or on account of unavoidable circumstances	<u>44</u>	<u>14.2</u>
Through a desire for a higher standard of living	32	10.3
Through difficulties in adapting themselves	9	2.9
Through the closing-down of a firm	1	0.3
Through illness	<u>2</u>	<u>0.7</u>
Through dismissal by employers	<u>28</u>	<u>9.0</u>
For incompetence	19	6.1
For misconduct	<u>9</u>	<u>2.9</u>

Table 6/ (Continued) 3. Complaints from Employers

a) Formulated complaints

	Number	Percentages
Immigrant employees	<u>310</u>	<u>100.0</u>
Formulated complaints	<u>39</u>	<u>12.6</u>
Complaints resulting in dismissal	<u>23</u>	<u>9.0</u>
For incompetence	19	6.1
For misconduct	<u>9</u>	<u>2.9</u>
Complaints not resulting in dismissal	<u>11</u>	<u>3.6</u>
For lacking alleged qualifications	<u>11</u>	<u>3.6</u>

Table 64 (Continued) b) Subsequent complaints

	Number	Percentages
Formulated complaints	39	100.0
Resulting in dismissal	28	71.8
For incompetence	19	48.7
Re-postings (present employers consider them satisfactory)	10	25.6
Working on their own	5	12.8
Unemployed	1	2.5
Not traced	3	7.8
For misconduct	9	23.0
Working on their own	2	5.1
Re-admitted	3	7.8
Re-postings (present employers have no complaints)	2	5.1
Deaths	1	2.5
Not traced	1	2.5
Complaints not resulting in dismissal	11	28.2
For lacking alleged qualifications	11	28.2
<u>a/</u>		

a/ Their employers keep them on account of their excellent conduct and hard work.

Source: Dirección General de Trabajo, Servicio Social.
(Department of Labour, Social Service Section)

Table 65 Industrial and Commercial Activities classified
according to Nationality of their Owners: 1936

A. Industrial Establishments and Services

Type of Activity	Chileans	Aliens	Not stated	Total	Percentages		
Rocks and sand	292	80	21	393	74.30	20.37	5.33
Glass	16	18	2	36	44.50	50.00	5.50
Metallurgy and mechanics	2,736	539	152	3,427	79.80	15.75	4.45
Chemicals	532	262	66	860	61.90	30.45	7.65
Textiles	146	196	30	372	39.10	52.90	8.00
Paper and printing	527	131	42	700	75.30	18.70	6.00
Leather and rubber	2,455	440	132	3,027	81.10	14.50	4.40
Wood	995	228	64	1,287	77.30	17.70	5.00
Musical instruments and toys	20	11	-	31	64.50	35.50	-
Foodstuffs	3,558	874	300	4,732	75.15	18.45	6.40
Beverages	218	95	17	330	66.65	25.75	5.60
Tobacco	10	6	7	23	43.50	26.00	30.50
Clothing	1,873	681	103	2,657	70.50	26.20	3.30
Public utilities	363	48	42	453	80.10	10.50	9.40
Workshops	<u>992</u>	<u>64</u>	<u>48</u>	<u>1,104</u>	<u>89.30</u>	<u>5.70</u>	<u>4.50</u>
Totals	14,733	3,673	1,026	19,432	75.50	18.90	5.60

Table 65 (Continued)

B. Commercial Activities

Activity	Chileans	Aliens	Not stated	Total	Percentages		
Foodstuffs	30,885	6,796	1,480	39,161	78.8	17.4	3.8
Auction rooms, house agents, brokers	1,531	650	237	2,418	63.3	26.9	9.8
Clothing	2,552	2,679	197	5,428	47.0	49.4	3.6
Hotels, restaurants, tea-rooms, drinks and cigarettes	15,985	2,399	1,040	19,424	82.3	12.3	4.4
Mechanical articles and articles of fine workmanship	248	136	16	400	62.0	34.0	4.0
Hardware, building materials, fuel, equipment	982	585	172	1,739	56.5	31.9	11.6
Publications and writing and printing materials	371	120	19	510	72.7	23.9	3.8
Leather and furs	115	88	12	215	53.5	40.9	5.6
Hygiene, sanitation and medicine	3,558	477	152	4,187	85.0	11.4	3.6
Household furniture	130	102	15	247	52.6	41.3	6.1
Entertainments	337	152	49	538	62.6	28.2	9.2
Other activities	<u>774</u>	<u>419</u>	<u>126</u>	<u>1,319</u>	<u>58.6</u>	<u>31.8</u>	<u>9.6</u>
Totals	57,468	14,576	3,515	75,559	76.2	19.3	4.9

Table 55 C. Classification of Economic Activities in the hands
 (Continued) of foreigners, according to the nationality of
their owners

Nationality	Number of Activities		
	Industrial	Commercial	Total
Spaniards	1,164	4,053	5,217
Italians	598	3,314	3,912
Syrians from Palestine	151	1,265	1,416
Arabs	47	593	640
Japanese	23	145	168
British	85	247	332
Russians	64	129	193
Yugoslavs	108	1,018	1,126
Chinese	28	745	773
German	442	906	1,348
French	233	450	683
North American	41	95	136
Other nationalities	669	1,618	2,307
Not stated	<u>1,026</u>	<u>3,515</u>	<u>4,541</u>
Totals	4,699	18,093	22,792
Percentages	20.51	79.39	100.00

Source: Dirección General de Estadística.

Table 56

Immediate Requirements for Technicians in Industry ^{a/}Summary according to type of Industry

Type of Activity	Technicians		Skilled	Total	Percentage
	Highly qualified	Qualified			
Metallurgy and mechanics	-	2	187	189	28.35
Timber and furniture	2	8	114	124	18.95
Textiles	2	9/11	64/67	75/80	11.5
Glass and metal	-	9/10	62/63	71/73	10.85
Fisheries	1	-	62	63	9.7
Shipbuilding	-	-	35	35	5.4
Gas and electricity	1	2	26/28	29/31	4.5
Building	-	5	3	13	1.9
Agricultural and livestock industries	8/9	-	4	12/13	1.8
Chemical products	10	1	1	12	1.8
Mining	-	-	12	12	1.8
Beverages	2	2	6	10	1.55
Foodstuffs	3	-	1	4	0.65
Other industries	-	1	4/5	5/6	0.75
Totals	29/30	39/41	586/593	654/664	100.00
Percentages	4.5	6.0	89.5	100.0	

a/ According to 218 entrepreneurs in the chief branches of industry.

Note: See details in Appendix IV.

Table 67 Average Salaries, according to Occupation and Zone,
offered to immigrants

Occupation	Valparaíso		Santiago		Concepción		Temuco		Valdivia		Puerto Montt	
	Viña del Mar											
	Salary	a/	Salary		Salary		Salary		Salary		Salary	
	day	month	day	month	day	month	day	month	day	month	day	month
Mechanic												
Welder					5,000	120	4,000		80			
Boiler-maker	100	8,000	-		to	to	to	-	to			
Foundry-worker					8,000	150	5,000		3,000	85	5,000	100
Turner												
Spinner		5,000										
Weaver	-	to										
Dyer		8,000	100	5,000	120	5,000	-	-	-	-	-	-
Cutter	120		220									
Blower	to	-	to	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Master-glazier	200		400									
Electrician	-		-	4,000	120	-	-	-	-	5,000	-	-
Fisherman	150	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Saw-mill expert	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5,000	-	4,000
										to		
										7,000		

a/ In Chilean pesos.

E/CN.12/169/Add. 2

IMMIGRATION IN CHILE

APPENDICES

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APPENDIX 1

I

Existing legislation governing entry into the country,
residence, exit, rights and naturalisation of aliens.

The following laws refer to all aliens who are implicitly forbidden to enter the country: law number 3,446 ("Ley de Residencia") of 12 December 1918; law number 6,026 ("Ley de Seguridad Interior del Estado") of 11 February 1937; the Passport Regulations of 25 January 1937, and Decree number 132 of 26 February 1941.

Law number 4,871 of 13 August 1930, and the Agreement on Passengers in Transit of 18 February 1938, establish the legal requirements necessary for an alien to enter the country.

Laws number 3,446 (already mentioned), number 6,180 of 7 February 1939, and number 6,880 of 18 April 1941; and the Supreme Decrees number 2,544 of 12 July 1938 and number 3,486 of 4 July 1941; in addition, circular number 102 of 5 October 1937 of the "Dirección General de Identificación y Pasaportes"; all refer to the conditions under which aliens are allowed to reside in the country.

Finally, laws number 3,446 and 5,107, which have already been quoted, and the decree-law number 550 of 13 October 1937, define the various cases in which aliens can be expelled from the country.

1. Aliens not allowed to enter Chile

According to the laws, regulations and decrees already quoted, the following persons are not allowed to enter the country:

1. All those who have been sentenced or are at the time on trial for any crime or offense contained in the Penal Code.
2. All those dealing in illicit traffic, contrary to morals or public order, whether as a transgressor or accomplice.
3. All those engaged in illegal activities or espionage.
4. All those practising, teaching, spreading or increasing the disturbance or destruction of social, political or legal order by violent means, whether by word of mouth, writing or any other means.
5. Fugitives from justice, guilty of common offences.

/6. Those expelled

6. Those expelled from Chile or any other country by the competent authorities.
7. Confirmed drunkards, drug-addicts and those who exploit them.
8. Beggars, vagabonds and all those who, according to the general situation existent in the country, would not be able to earn a living.
9. All illiterate, who cannot read and write at least in their own language.
10. All who are unable to exercise a profession or trade enabling them to earn a living.
11. All those having the symptoms of or within the incubationary period of or in a position to spread bubonic plague, cholera, yellow fever, exanthematous typhus, small-pox or other contagious diseases, or those suffering from diseases, whether acute or chronic, organic or local and also incurable organic defects.
12. Those who refuse to take a written oath not to take part in local politics during their residence in the country, or activities that might create difficulties with friendly governments.
13. The transgressors of articles numbers 2 and 10 of the decree-law number 550 referring to gold traffic and gold washers.
14. Those who are expressly forbidden to enter the country by special order of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.
15. All whose papers are either incomplete or not in order as required by law.

The following persons cannot enter the country without special permission from the health authorities:

- a) All persons suffering from any incurable defect or mutilation, which may prevent them from earning a living.
- b) those suffering from leprosy, trachoma, contagious consumption, malignant lymphogranuloma, evolutionary syphilis, tropical diseases or drug-addicts.

II. Necessary documents for entering Chile

The following list comprises all the documents an alien must possess, to be able to enter the country:

/a) Special statement

- a) Special statement to be made before the Chilean consul.
- b) Passport
- c) A visa
- d) Inspection of passport
- e) Medical certificate
- a) Special statement

Every alien wishing to enter Chile must make a written statement, in which he undertakes not to participate in local politics or in any activities which might create difficulties with friendly governments.

b) Passport

Any person entering or leaving the country must possess a passport, or an equivalent document, duly granted and visaed, unless it be by virtue of exceptions covered by international agreements.

The following are exempt from showing their passports:

1. Argentine citizens who, according to Article number 1 of the Agreement concerning Passengers in Transit between Chile and Argentina and signed on 18 February, 1938, only need their military enrolment book or identity card. A photograph of the holder, and nationality and age data must appear inside them. These persons may only travel by air and sea, and by land via Uspallata, Bariloche, Punta Arenas and Río Grande.
2. Aliens with over 2 years residence in Argentina, who have shown their identity card, granted by an Argentine or Chilean official, and also a certificate of residence containing a photograph and data referring to nationality, age and length of residence in the country.
3. Citizens of border countries, entering Chile as tourists, who only need a "Tourist Pass" given by the Chilean consul in their respective countries.
4. Travellers between Tacna and Arica, who only need a special "laissez-passer", printed as a form, on which their personal identity is vouched for and authorization to travel is granted.
5. Those availing themselves or who are entitled to avail themselves of the privilege which the President may grant by supreme decree, to the effect that passports can be replaced, insofar as entering the country is concerned, by other documents, whose validity, requirements and visas will be suitably controlled.
- /6. Paraguayan

6. Paraguayan and Bolivian citizens, who will also be able to travel by special concession, once the agreements with Bolivia and Paraguay concerning travellers in transit have been ratified.

c) Visas: The existing legislation comprises the following types of visas:

1. Diplomatic
2. Conditional
3. Ordinary, and
4. Permanent

1. Diplomatic Visas: These are granted according to instructions from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

2. Conditional Visas: They may be issued by Chilean consuls and authorize an alien to remain in the country for a certain period marked on the visa. The alien is given five days after the date of expiry in which to abandon the country.

Conditional visas can also be sub-divided as follows:

1. Tourist permit
2. Visiting visa
3. Commercial visa
4. Subject to contract, and
5. In transit.

The tourist permit is valid for three months, and may be extended for another three. It can be individual or collective; in the latter case, it receives the name of "lists or groups of tourists". Aliens using this visa are not obliged to obtain an alien's identity card.

The Visiting visa allows an alien to remain in the country for six months. It must however be authorized by the Ministry of the Interior, and can only be obtained by fulfilling the following requirements:

- a) Legal, medical and health certificates;
- b) Presentation of a written statement, indicating the duration of the visit, and the place or places of destination;
- c) Certificates or documents, proving that the return tickets have already been bought.
- d) Fulfilment of any other requirement ordered by Chilean laws or authorities.

/The Commercial

The Commercial visa is given only for six months. In addition to the foregoing stipulations, letters and documents as guarantee are required, which must be presented by the firm authorizing the person to come to the country. Should he be travelling on his own account he must produce instead a declaration, signed by two persons from the place in which he wishes to exercise his profession or trade, who guarantee his return home.

The visa subject to contract allows an alien to remain in Chile for the period of time indicated thereon. The Chilean consul, before awarding it, must consider:

- a) The type of contract and the technical training of the person concerned;
- b) his reputation, age and physical and moral qualities.

This visa is only granted if the applicant presents a written statement, undertaking to work for the firm or enterprise with which he has a contract and to leave the country once his contract has expired. However, providing he has fulfilled his contract satisfactorily, he may make an application to the Ministry of the Interior for an ordinary visa to be able to prolong his stay in the country.

The Visa in Transit allows an alien to pass through Chile as many times as he wishes, for a year. On every occasion, he must show his passport, and cannot remain in the country for more than 15 days at a time.

In addition to the customary requirements necessary to all conditional visas, "in transit" visa must be accompanied by the traveller's passport, duly visaed by consular official of the country to which he is going, and also his tickets showing his final destination.

3. Ordinary visas: These allow an alien to enter the country for a year, reckoned from the moment of its authorization. After the year is over, this visa can be converted into a conditional one.

The person concerned must present legal, medical and health certificates and must prove that he has means of livelihood.

4. Permanent Visas: These are awarded for a year, but the holder may remain in the country indefinitely.

/According to the

According to the Passport Regulations, permanent visas may be granted to the following categories of visas:

- a) Former residents, who can prove they have interests in the country.
- b) All persons whose arrival would prove of benefit to the country by reason of their training, qualities and merits. They must, however, fulfill the conditions laid down by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.
- c) Colonists brought to the country by official organizations.

Under a) "former residents" includes persons who, after living for more than a year in the country, obtained a permit for permanent residence from the Ministry of the Interior and then left the country for a period of less than twelve months.

d) Inspection of Passports: This is carried out by the Dirección General de Identificación y Pasaportes, or in its absence, by the Dirección General de Carabineros (police authorities). If an alien arrives by land without his documents in order, he is automatically rejected. Should this be impossible, he is placed at the disposal of the civil authorities or governor, and the matter is reported to the Dirección General de Investigaciones. Should he arrive by ship and assuming his papers were not in order, he would remain under arrest on board, and entrusted to the care of the captain. The absolute refusal on the part of the authorities to allow such an alien to enter the country would be communicated at once to all home ports.

All aliens who, having lived in the country for six months, have not yet put their papers in order, will be immediately expelled from the country. In addition, if an alien remains in the country without visasing his passport, he will be sentenced to 60 days' imprisonment with the option of a fine of 100 pesos.

e) Health Certificates: By virtue of Article 31 of the "Reglamento de Sanidad Marítima y de las Fronteras" (Maritime and Frontier Health Regulations), every alien entering as an immigrant, must present a health certificate, given by a doctor appointed by the respective Chilean consul. He must certify that the person concerned is not suffering from any communicable disease, whether acute or chronic, organic or local, and has been vaccinated against small-pox with positive result.

The non-fulfilment of this requirement will mean deportation of the alien to his point of departure.

/III. Requirements for

III. Requirement for residence in the country

An alien entering Chile must lawfully comply with certain obligations of a political and moral character; his failure to do so will mean his expulsion from the country.

A) Immigrants Register:

An immigrant entering the country must, in accordance with law dated 1 December 1948 be inscribed in special registers which are kept for that purpose in the Prefecturas de Policía (Police Prefectures). He must also obtain an identity card, a resident's card or an alien's card, and if necessary request authorization from the Ministry of the Interior to prolong his residence in the country beyond the date stamped on his visa.

All permanent residents, and those who will stay more than two months in the country, must register within three days of their arrival. All persons provided with tourist permits are excepted. Those who do not comply with this regulation will be sentenced to the minimum term of imprisonment, with the option of a fine of 20 pesos per diem for each day's delay in registering. This fine cannot, however, exceed 500 pesos.

The residence or alien's card is issued by the Departamento de Extranjería del Gabinete de Identificación (Foreign Department of the Identification Bureau). This document must always be shown at the request of the authorities. It lasts two years for aliens in general and ten years for colonists, and can be renewed after its expiry.

All aliens residing in the country and those whose residence has exceeded two months, must obtain an alien's card within 30 calendar days. The possession of this document does not confer upon its holder any right to settle in the country, by releasing him from the obligations stipulated on his visa.

An alien's card costs 250 pesos, and its renewal, 200. The following persons need only pay 25 pesos the first time and 20 afterwards:

1. Those persons who have come to the country to offer their services gratis in aid of schools, whether state or private schools.
2. The clergy of both sexes, secular and regular, non-cloistered, of the Catholic and Orthodox Churches, and the Brothers of the Christian Schools.

/3. The priests

3. The priests belonging to any other creed, who are granted this privilege by Supreme Decree.
4. All persons who have come on cultural study or social welfare missions, previously authorized by competent authority; and members of the Salvation Army.
5. Regularly attending students of secondary and private schools, having proved conclusively that their residence in the country is exclusively for educational purposes.
6. Technicians and professionals brought by the Government.
7. Those who have taken a course in military police establishments or the Criminal Investigation or Identification Bureaux, commissioned by their Governments, or who have won scholarships given by the Chilean Government. All under 18 years of age are not obliged to get identity cards.

B) Legal Documents

Aliens whose documents are not in order cannot remain in the country and will be expelled forthwith, as established by law. In this respect Article 17 of the Ley de Seguridad Interior del Estado lays down:

"All aliens entering the country without properly visaed passports, or whose visa in any way does not fulfill legal requirements, will be arrested by the police and expelled immediately, after the promulgation of a decree from the Ministry of the Interior".

"Aliens already settled in the country who within six months have not presented their documents as prescribed above, will suffer the same punishment"

"Nevertheless, any alien to whom the above article is applicable, may request permission from the Ministry of the Interior to remain in the country. This permission will only be granted providing the person is regarded as not dangerous to the State".

C) Political and moral activities

All aliens established in the country are forbidden to take part in any political activities against the State, the regime and its institutions, or to exercise any profession or trade contrary to the moral precepts of the country, such as white slavery, traffic of drugs, etc. All those found guilty of these crimes, in the cases indicated by Articles 1 and 2 of the Law of Residence, can be expelled from the country by means of a decree signed by the governor of the respective province.

Nevertheless, an alien, against whom an order of expulsion has been
/decreed has five

decreed has five days' grace in which to present an appeal to the Supreme Court, reckoned from the day the respective decree is published in the "Diario Oficial" (Official Bulletin). Once the five days have passed and an appeal has been made, or three days after its rejection by the Supreme Court, the governor of the province will give the necessary orders and fix a time-limit of at least 24 hours in which the expelled person is to be escorted by the police to the frontier.

Should an expelled alien return to the country without authorization, he will be sentenced to six months' imprisonment with hard labour, in addition to being re-expelled immediately from the country after the term of imprisonment.

IV. Permanent residence in the country

All aliens wishing to settle permanently in Chile, who - when law No. 6,880 of 15 April 1941 was published - possessed temporary residence, and all aliens who have arrived since that date with a conditional or ordinary visa, and who also wish to settle in the country, may make a request for permanent residence.

The necessary procedure is as follows: an alien duly registered in the Dirección General de Identificación, must fill out a form, given him by this office, and give all the required personal data as follows: Christian and surnames of father and mother, marital state, age, domicile full name and nationality of wife and children.

This form includes a 2 pesos fiscal tax and must be accompanied by an income-tax certificate, police record and 500 pesos in fiscal stamps. The form is then given to the Gabinete de Identificación which, after checking all the data, passes it on to the respective governor. Finally, all the information is forwarded to the Ministry of the Interior, who has the final responsibility and either accepts or rejects the request for permanent residence.

V. Requirements to leave the country

An alien wishing to leave the country must fulfill certain obligations similar to those necessary to enter it.

/In the first

In the first place, he must possess a passport given him by the consul of his country and registered in the Departamento de Extranjería (Foreign Department), after paying the corresponding tax.

The following persons are excepted:

- a) Tourists.
- b) Those with less than three months' residence in the country.
- c) Foreign diplomats and consuls.

An alien must present, together with his passport, two certificates from the Dirección General de Impuestos Internos (General Interest Tax-Collecting Bureau). The first should testify that he has declared the amount of his income for the effects of income-tax, and the second that he is up-to-date in the payment of his taxes.

The following persons need not comply with this regulation:

- a) All aliens travelling on diplomatic or official passports.
- b) Aliens not owning real estate in the country, and
- c) Aliens whose residence in the country has been less than six months.

All those not needing a passport to enter the country do not require one to leave.

Aliens belonging to a country which has no diplomatic or consular representatives in Chile, or who have lost their own nationality or possess two nationalities, due to the course of international events, receive a special passport, given to them by the Chilean Government and called "passport of a non-Chilean".

Having fulfilled all requirements, passport, visa, etc., an alien must finally undergo an inspection of his documents and luggage. It should be pointed out, in this connection, that goods up to the value of 2,000 pesos can be taken out of the country free of duty.

II

A. Ways of obtaining Chilean nationality

According to the State Constitution, there are two ways in which an alien may obtain Chilean nationality; a) by direct request, and b) by /special concession.

special concession. To this effect, Article 5 says:

"The following persons are Chileans:

.....

3. Those who obtain naturalization papers, in accordance with the law, and explicitly renouncing their former nationality.
4. Those who legally obtain naturalization by special concession".

As regards the former of these procedures, the formalities required are indicated in Decree Law No. 747 of 15 December 1925, later modified by Laws Nos. 5,374 and 6,924, and explained in greater detail by Supreme Decrees Nos. 4,395 of 10 October 1936; No. 560 of 8 February 1937, No. 4,741 of 20 December 1937, No. 3,521 of 7 July 1941, and No. 4,377 of 26 August 1941.

According to the above references, the following requirements are essential:

1. To be at least 21 years of age.
2. To have lived at least five consecutive years within the national territory.

The 5 years' residence must immediately precede the date of the request. It should be entirely continuous and cannot have been interrupted whatsoever. However, Article 2 of Law No. 6,924 allows the Ministry of the Interior to count certain journeys abroad as extenuating circumstances in order to include them as continuous residence.

3. To renounce by document drawn up before public notary, previous nationality. The renunciation should be made at the end of the naturalization procedure, when the Minister of the Interior clears the respective dossier, and orders that it be accompanied by the public instrument, containing the renunciation of former nationality.
4. Not to possess a single impediment of those included in Article 3 of Decree Law No. 747.

The impediments referred to are as follows:

- a) To have been found guilty of or to be at the time on trial for a simple offence or crime.
- b) To be unable to earn one's livelihood.
- c) To suffer from a chronic or contagious disease or any incurable organic defect.

/d) To preach or

- d) to preach or spread doctrines that might produce a downfall or upheaval of the social or political regime in force, or might affect national integrity.
 - e) To engage in illegal activities, contrary to good habits and morals; or to be affected by any impediment included in the law or residence.
5. Not to possess the status of alien for previously having forfeited Chilean nationality.

The Chilean who has lost his nationality, cannot acquire it again by means of this procedure. According to the procedure actually in force the request for naturalization must be sent to the President of the Republic, through the mediation of the governor of the province, in which the applicant is living. This declaration must contain the following data: Christian and surnames of father and mother; place of birth; age; marital state (the applicant, if married, must indicate the nationality of his wife); profession or trade; real estate in his possession; whether previously naturalized in another country; papers confirming personal identity given by the respective authorities of either his native country or of the country in which he last resided, before coming to Chile.

The above declaration need not be presented by those fulfilling the following requirements:

- a) If they can prove that they have lived at least six years within the national territory.
- b) If, within the last five years prior to presenting the request, they have married a Chilean or have had children born in Chile.

In addition, the request sent to the President of the Republic must be accompanied by certificates given by the respective consul or consular agent, accredited in Chile, and which confirm the applicant's identity and state his previous history.

Nevertheless, aliens belonging to a country not having consular or diplomatic representatives in Chile, may substitute for these reports a certificate issued by the Minister of Foreign Affairs, in which the nationality of the applicant, the reasons for accepting it, and the motives justifying the non-fulfilment of this requirement, are given.

In addition, the request should be accompanied by police reports
/from the various

from the various districts in the country, where the applicant has resided. Other information should be added, regarding the services the applicant may have given in favour of national institutions or of the country in general. Also a copy of the applicant's finger-prints filed in the Gabinete de Identificación, a photograph postcard size and certificates of good conduct, signed by Chileans of acknowledged integrity.

If the applicant is a merchant, he must prove he has never been declared bankrupt, nor convicted of arson; for this purpose, he must attach certificates from the Bankruptcy Court and from each Criminal Court of the places where he has been domiciled.

The governor ("intendent or gobernador") receiving the request will in turn ask for information from the police authorities and the Dirección General de Investigaciones. The dossier is then sent for the final decision to the Ministry of the Interior.

After all these requirements have been fulfilled, the consul or consular agent of the applicant's country of origin, is asked to give information concerning him. Aliens who have lived fifteen years at least in Chile, prior to the date of their request, are exempt from this last requirement.

All the papers now being complete, the Ministry of the Interior accepts or rejects the application for naturalization.

In the former case, a supreme decree is proclaimed, legalized by the Minister of the Interior, with the heading "by order of the President of the Republic".

In the latter case, the decree will be signed by the President of the Republic, and will point out the reasons why the request was refused. In short, this decree should always possess powerful motives.

As has already been mentioned, another way of obtaining Chilean nationality in conformity with the quoted article of the Constitution, is by special concession, honour or "gran nacionalización". It is given to those who render great services to the State, with no

/requirements whatsoever

requirements whatsoever as regards age, residence, documents, etc. They need not even renounce their former nationality. This is one of the cases - according to legal experts - where there is double nationality.

The procedure is brief and concise. It may come from the President of the Republic, who proposes it to Congress, or in Congress itself, in a motion presented by at least ten deputies or five senators.

B. Ways of losing Chilean Nationality

In accordance with Article 6 of the Constitution, Chilean nationality may be lost by:

- 1) Naturalization in a foreign country.
- 2) Nullification of naturalization papers, in the case of naturalized aliens.
- 3) Rendering war services to Chile's enemies or their allies.

The nullification of naturalization papers requires the consent of the Council of Ministers and a decree issued by the President of the Republic.

The legal fundamental principles by which naturalization papers may be annulled are two and run as follows:

- a) In case they were granted containing an error or omission of the legal requirements.
- b) "In case certain events should take place, making the holder unworthy of possessing naturalization papers".

As the law does not enumerate or classify unworthy actions, these are left to the discretion of the Council of Ministers. There is, however, an exception, contained in Article 16 of Law No. 6,026. This article states that naturalized aliens, found guilty of any offence against national security, will be deprived of their naturalization papers and expelled forthwith from the country.

III

Civil and political rights of naturalized aliens

Chileans by naturalization enjoy exactly the same civil and political rights as Chileans by birth. Nevertheless, there are three exceptions, as follows:

/In accordance with

In accordance with Article 61 of the Constitution, a naturalized Chilean cannot be elected President of the Republic.

To be able to stand for election, whether in Parliamentary or municipal elections, a minimum of five years as a Chilean subject is required.

Finally, no Chilean by birth can lose his nationality by committing unworthy actions, while, as we have just seen, a naturalized foreigner may lose it, for the same reasons, if accorded by the Council of Ministers.

Nevertheless, colonization laws do establish certain disadvantages to Chileans by naturalization.

Appendix II

Specialized personnel presently required in Chilean industry

Mechanics	32	
Bench mechanics	15	
Mechanics for Diesel motors	10	
" for lathes	9	
" adjusters	6	
" for precision work, specializing in beer-bottling machines	6	
" for precision work	4	
" assembler	4	
" for automobiles	3	
" for manufacture of agricultural machinery	3	
" for internal combustion motors	2	
" for saw sharpening	4	
" for envelope-making machines	1	
" boiler maker	1	
" die-maker	1	
" refrigeration specialist	1	
" for Diesel tractors	1	103
<hr/>		
Lathe workers	32	
" pattern makers	3	35
<hr/>		
Boiler makers	27	
<hr/>		
Tin-plate workers	2	29
<hr/>		
Iron foundry workers	16	
<hr/>		
Brass foundry workers	7	23
<hr/>		
Welders	3	
<hr/>		
Electric welders	6	
<hr/>		
Arc welders	9	18
<hr/>		
Die-makers	11	
<hr/>		
Cutlers	1	12
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/Plumbers

Plumbers	5	
" for gas and sanitary installations	5	10
Moulders	9	
Skilled pattern maker	1	10
Electricians	7	
" (high and low tension)	2	9
Milling machine workers	7	
Wire drawers	7	
Blacksmiths	7	
Locksmiths	3	
Iron polishers	3	
Electric motor coil winders	2	
Galvanizers	2	
Workers skilled in galvanoplasty	2	
Installers of high tension wiring systems	2	
Swagers	1	
Foundry engineers	1	
Diesel motor engineers	1	
Superintendent of sawmill machinery	1	
Technician in central heating and air conditioning	1	
Technician in the manufacture of aluminium goods	1	
Technician in the manufacture of cutlery	1	
Pantographers	1	
Nickel plater	1	

/Iron enameller

Iron enameller	1	
Technician for the manufacture of small electric motors	1	<u>46</u>
Assistant engineer for Gas Company	1	
Designer for metal adornments	1	
Weavers	Not specified	
Cotton weavers	10	
Wool knitters	8	
Wool weavers	1	
Silk weavers	Not specified	
Weavers for Crompton & Knowles looms	4	
Wool spinners	10	
Rayon spinners (viscose)	3	
Cotton spinners	Not specified	
Hemp spinners	2	
Dyers	10	
Dye-shop superintendents	Not specified	
Printers	4	
Wool combers	4	
Skilled workers in finishing and sizing of woollens	5	
Rayon classifiers	1	
Shift bosses for textile mills (silk)	3	
Skilled workers in preparation of rayon (viscose)	3	
Technician for automatic cotton looms	1	
Mechanics for cotton looms	Not specified	

/Mechanics

Mechanics for cotton mills	Not specified
Crystal cutters	31
Glass cutters	6 (there are 30-40 in the country)
Glass blowers	9
Skilled glass workers and foremen	8
Mirror platers	3
Bevellers	1
Beveller (Foreman)	1
Mirror engravers	1 <u>131</u>
Frame makers	1
Mirror packers	1
Storekeeper in mirror factory	1
Skilled workers in manufacture of wood	8
Skilled workers in plywood manufacture	1
Sawmill technicians	2
Foreman for plywood factory	1
Cabinet makers	2
Carpenters for construction work	4
Refractory masons	1
Skilled stucco workers	2
Painters specializing in Ducco and Corrugado	2
Skilled workers in fibre-cement	5
Shipwrights skilled in the building of small vessels and schooners for the coastwise trade	4
Shipwrights skilled in the building of row boats	2
	/Sailmakers

Sailmakers	2	
Dairy technicians	5	
Technicians specialized in industrialization of cattle by-products	Not specified	
Stock-breeding expert	1	
Technicians for handling agricultural machinery	Not specified	
Fruit growers	1	
Millers	1	
Expert in glucose and corn starch	1	
Technician for fruit, vegetable and meat canning industry	<u>1</u>	<u>49</u>
Brewers and malt manufacturers	4	(2 of each)
Fishermen	60	
Fishermen with equipment	Not specified	
Divers with equipment	"	"
Technicians in fish canning industry	1	
Foremen for canning industry	Not specified	
Drillers for copper mines	10	
Experts for manufacture of insecticides, lacquers and paint oils	5	
Experts in positive coloured film development	3	
Experts in chemical explosives	1	
Chemical engineer for petroleum refinery	1	
Chemical expert in petroleum refinery	1	
Skilled technician in manufacture of oil and cellulose paints	1	
Expert in maritime transportation (Southern Zone)	1	
Planers	7	
Crane operators	4	
Workers for wooden box factories	<u>80</u>	<u>179</u>

Total 654

